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The Television Viewing, Dating, and Academics of Young Adults

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ABSTRACT

THE TELEVISION VIEWING, DATING, AND ACADEMICS OF YOUNG ADULTS

by

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ABSTRACT OF GRADUATE RESEARCH

Thesis

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Purpose of the Study

More than ever before, young adults have access to television content. Television programs are no longer relegated to the television set, but can be accessed on desktops, laptops, tablets, and even smartphones. The accessibility of television has increasingly allowed young adults to spend a significant portion of their day viewing these programs. Gathering information on how this viewing is related to their dating and academic habits is important to better understand the decision-making and outcomes for young adults in these two central areas of their lives. The purpose of this study was to measure the relationship between television viewing, dating behavior, dating expectations, dating well-being, academic achievement, and academic behavior of young adults.

Method

The current research was designed as a quantitative non-experimental descriptive study utilizing survey methodology. The instrument, called the Milmine Social Interaction, Academic, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI), was used to gather information on participants television viewing habits, dating behaviors, dating expectations, dating relationship well-being, academic achievement, and academic behaviors. The data was gathered from 202 graduate and undergraduate students attending Andrews University in the Spring 2015 semester. Canonical correlational analyses were used to determine the existence of relationships between television viewing, dating, and academics. ANOVAs, zero-order correlations, and *t*-tests were used to provide additional descriptive information on the sample.

Results

There was no significant relationship found between television viewing and dating, as well as between dating and academics. A significant relationship was found between television viewing and academics. In particular, it was found that total viewing and entertainment viewing were positively related to skipping class and procrastinating. Participants watched television for an average of about 79 minutes, spent 201 minutes doing homework, 192 minutes studying, and 154 minutes with their dating partner each day. Physical attractiveness was more important for men while women reported that receiving kind acts and compliments was more important.

Conclusions

Although most of the results turned out to be non-significant, there were still many interesting findings. Further research is needed in order to clarify and provide support for these results. This study helped grow the understanding of how one of the most influential media impacts the young adult's dating and academics as well as how dating influences academics.

Andrews University

Graduate Department of Psychology and Counseling

THE TELEVISION VIEWING, DATING, AND ACADEMICS OF YOUNG ADULTS

A Thesis

Presented In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

by

Michael D. Milmine

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THE TELEVISION VIEWING, DATING, AND ACADEMICS OF YOUNG ADULTS

A thesis
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Statement of Problem

According to the U.S. Department of Labor (2014), the average adult watches about 2.8 hours of television a day. Television shows and their content influence people's behaviors and expectations because they use it as a source of information (Ward, 2004; Wood, Senn, Desmarais, Park, & Verberg 2002; Zurbriggen, & Morgan, 2006). In fact, adolescents rank television as one of their top sources to gather information on both dating and sex and spend more time watching television than they do with their parents and teachers (Hofferth & Sandberg, 2001; Ward, 2004; Ward & Friedman, 2006; Wood, et al., 2002). Studies have also found that viewing certain types of entertainment programs on television is related to a greater number of dating partners and beginning to date earlier (Rivadeneyra & Lebo, 2008). Other studies found that viewing certain types of programs was related to openness to premarital sex and an earlier initial sexual experience (Collins, Martino, Elliott, & Miu, 2011; Greeson & Williams, 1986; Martino, Collins, Kanouse, Elliot, & Berry, 2005; Price & Hyde, 2009; Ward, 2002). Some of the research outright disagrees with these findings or admits that the link between the two is weakening (Steinberg & Monahan, 2010; Zurbriggen & Morgan, 2006). Television viewing has also been linked to the acceptance of aggressive and violent actions with romantic relationships (Connolly et al., 2010; Mangello, 2008).

Research has also found associations between television viewing and academics. Many researchers believe that television viewing displaces time that would have been spent in academic activities, reduces individual's academic task perseverance, and reduces the individual's ability to concentrate (Ahmed, 1980; Collins, 1991; Greenfield, 1984; Hagborg, 1995; Healy, 1990; Hornik, 1981; Koolstra & van der Voort, 1996; MacBeth, 1996; Postman, 1985; Potter, 1987; Salomon, 1984; Shin, 2004; Singer, 1980; Valkenburg & van der Voort, 1994; Winn, 1977). There were some studies whose results did not support these findings (Harborg, 1995; Hofferth, 2010; Keith, Reimers, Fehrmann, Pottebaum, & Fandrich, 1986). Other studies actually found a positive relationship between television viewing and academic achievement (Blosser, 1988; Lemish & Rice, 1986). Another argument that has provided evidence for itself is that the relationship between watching television academic achievement is curvilinear (Neuman, 1986; Williams, Haertel, Haertel, & Walberg, 1982). This also seems to be dependent on the age and socioeconomic status of the viewer as well as the type of program (Caldas & Bankston, 1999; Ennemoser, 2003; Ennemoser & Schneider, 2007; Gaddy, 1986; Huston & Wright, 1998; Munasib & Bhattacharya, 2010; Razel, 2001; Rice, Huston, Truglio, & Wright, 1990; Schiffer, 2003).

The research on the relationship between dating and academics is not generally favorable. Dating appears to be related to both poor academic performance and academic problems (Quatman, Sampson, Robinson, & Watson, 2001; Orpinas, Horne, Song, Reeves, & Hsieh, 2013). However, other research finds that there are a variety of variables that may influence the strength and direction of this relationship (Stefan, 2006).

While there is good information on some areas of television viewing, its relationships with dating behaviors, dating well-being, and academic behaviors have been overlooked. It is no

surprise that researchers have passed over those topics in favor of looking at the relationship between television viewing and sexual behavior, abusive behavior, and academic performance as these seem much more likely to garner research grants. The importance of understanding these topics is clear; however, learning about dating behaviors, dating well-being, and academic behaviors is also critical in order to be knowledgeable and intelligent consumers of television media. The importance of studying such a prevalent medium with a powerful potential for help or harm is necessary to more fully understand the behaviors, expectations, and achievement of young adults who are making some of the most important decisions of their lives. In what ways and to what degree the television can impact these areas need further exploration and a more thorough understanding.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to measure the relationships between television viewing, dating behavior, dating expectations, academic achievement, and academic behavior of young adults. Knowledge regarding these relationships will be helpful in understanding cultural trends and solving problems within the romantic and academic lives of young adults. Audiences that can benefit from this study include educators, the scientific community, mental health professionals, parents, and young adults.

Research Question and Sub-problems

What, if any, relationships exist between television viewing, dating, and academics? To help answer the research question, there were three major sub-problems. The first sub-problem attempts to determine if there is a relationship between television viewing and dating. The second sub-problem investigates whether or not a relationship exists between television viewing

and academics. The third and final sub-problem attempts to determine whether or not there is a relationship between dating and academics. To help answer these sub-problems, ten research hypotheses were created to guide the study. First, there are positive correlations between television viewing and the levels of expectations one has for their dating partner, as well as with physical touch within the dating relationship. Second, there is an inverse correlation between television viewing and the well-being of the dating relationship. Third, there are inverse correlations between television viewing and GPA as well as positive academic behaviors. Fourth, there is a positive correlation between television viewing and negative academic behaviors. Fifth, there are negative relationships between dating behaviors and GPA as well as positive academic behaviors. Sixth, there is a positive relationship between dating behaviors and negative academic behaviors. Seventh, there are negative relationships between dating expectations and GPA as well as positive academic behaviors. Eighth, there is a positive relationship between dating expectations and negative academic behaviors. Ninth, there are positive correlations between dating relationship well-being and GPA as well as positive academic behaviors. Finally, there is an inverse correlation between dating relationship well-being and negative academic behaviors.

Importance of the Study

In recent years, research on television viewing has decreased in regards to both dating and academics. In the area of television and dating, many of the recent studies focus on violence and sexual behaviors; neither of which are the focus of this study. Research on television and academic behavior tends to mainly focus on children and disagrees on the impact of television watching on academic achievement. More studies are needed that look at young adults instead of children. Therefore, the focus population of this study will be young adults and attempts to

clarify the disagreement found in the literature. This study will give new insight into the influence of television on young adults specifically and two of the areas on which they concentrate much of their time: romantic relationships and academics. The results of this study will give educators, the scientific community, mental health professionals, parents, and young adults a better understanding of how the television viewing habits of young adults impact their daily lives.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Power of Television on Dating and Academic Achievement in Young Adults

According to the U.S. Department of Labor (2014), the average adult watches about 2.8 hours of television a day. This is more than half the total time they spend in leisure activities. According to Hofferth and Sandberg (2001), adolescents spend more time watching television than they spend interacting with their parents and teachers. With this large amount of time spent watching television, it is not surprising that it is referred to as one of the most powerful and influential media in the United States (Bilandzic, 2006; Cheever, 2010). There are a multitude of different programs that are available for viewing, including news, entertainment, educational, informative, and advertisements. Of these different areas, entertainment dominates primetime viewership (Nielson, 2012). Many of these shows contain characters in romantic relationships. For adolescents, teens, and young adults who do not have as much experience to draw upon as older adults, television programs can be a source of information for their dating behaviors (Ward, 2004; Wood, et al., 2002; Zurbriggen, & Morgan, 2006). In fact, one study found that adolescents ranked television in the top four places where they get their information about dating (Wood, et al., 2002).

Another consideration is the influence of television on academic achievement. Whether or not the adolescent is actively engaged in their education, school is a significant part of their life. Do television viewing habits have links to academic achievement? This question was first

addressed in a study by Greenstein (1954) in which he found that children who had a television in their home had better grades than those who did not. Although some studies are convinced that television viewing nurtures poor mental habits which hurt academic achievement, the scientific community in general remains far from a definite answer (Hornik, 1978; Hornik, 1981; Medved, 1992; Schmidt & Vandewater, 2008). The following literature review examines the literature on how television interacts with the dating and academic lives of teens and young adults.

The search strategy used to gather research studies for this literature review involved searching online academic databases. The databases used were: PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, Sage Premier, EBSCO Academic Search Complete and ScienceDirect. This literature review focuses on evaluating and synthesizing the knowledge gathered on how television viewing interacts with dating behaviors and academics in an individual's life. Subtopics in the area of dating behavior include television as a source of information, sexual behavior and attitudes, perceptions of dating and reality, aggression, violence, and abuse will be discussed. In the area of academics and academic achievement, the subtopics covered in this literature review include hypotheses on the relationship between television viewing and academic achievement, the type of relationships or non-relationships found in the literature, various covariates including age, types of television programs, socioeconomic status, IQ, family stress and unemployment which are involved in and confound the television-academic achievement relationship. This literature review also discusses the research on the relationship between dating and academics. Included in this section are the subtopics dating and academic performance as well as dating violence and academics.

Definition of Key Terms

There are several terms that will frequently occur in this literature review. The terms television, television media, and television programming will be used interchangeably and will be defined as any programming that is viewed on television or programming that is viewed on another device such as a computer or a tablet. For example, television shows viewed on the internet (e.g., Netflix, Amazon Prime, Hulu) would be included in this definition. Dating will refer to dating behaviors, expectations of one's dating partner, and the well-being of the dating relationship. Adolescents, teens, youth, and young adults are also terms that may be used interchangeably, referring to individuals who are preteens to early twenties (i.e., 11-25). The term academics will be used broadly to describe academic achievement, academic major, and other academic choices or distinctions. The term academic achievement will be defined as an individual's ability to solve problems (e.g., math problems, etc.), learn academic skills (e.g., reading, writing, etc.), and their grade-point average or GPA (elementary school, high school, or college). Academic achievement may also refer to the student's success in obtaining access to programs and other desired academic settings or achievements. The word achievement or the term academic performance may be used in the place of academic achievement for the sake of variety. Academic major will simply be defined as the area or degree that an individual is pursuing (e.g., psychology, education, business, biology, etc.).

Television Viewing and Dating Behavior

The first section of the literature review will focus on the research on the influence of television viewing on the dating behaviors of young adults. After reviewing the existing literature, the findings were divided into subtopics which include: television as a source of

information, perceptions of dating and reality, sexual behavior and attitudes, and violence, aggression, and abuse in dating.

Television as a Source of Information

Young adults who have recently entered sexual maturity are curious and seeking truthful information about dating behaviors and sexuality within the context of dating (Wood et al., 2002). Whether or not they are accurate, highly sexualized television programs and other forms of media are eager to provide such information. Several studies have found that young adults list television among their top sources of information for dating behaviors; a list that also includes dating partners, parents, friends, and sex educators (Ward, 2004; Wood et al., 2002; Zurbriggen, & Morgan, 2006). For certain dating behaviors such as sexual activities, studies suggest that television is second only to the youth's peers and more important than parents as a preferred method for gathering information (Ward, 2004; Ward & Friedman, 2006). While television is a major source of dating information for young adults, they often describe it as inaccurate and believe it has little or no effect on them. Compared to young men, young women (on average) listed media to be a more important and a more accurate source of dating information (Wood et al., 2002). Further research discussed in this literature review reveals that television may have a greater influence on young adults than they believe.

Television becomes an increasingly important source of dating information with young adults who build connections with particular television characters. The more connected one is to a character on television, the greater the viewer is affected by what they are viewing (Zurbriggen & Morgan, 2006). Bilandzic (2006) builds on these findings with further results that suggest ideas, values, and morals presented on television are slowly assimilated by the viewer. In addition, studies have shown that people are influenced by stories. Through television shows,

movies, and other programs, people are exposed to and seek out stories which may also add to the power of television's influence (Bilandzic, 2006). Known as the cultivation hypothesis, consistent messages viewed on television encourage young adults to adopt these beliefs, ideas, and values themselves (Gerbner, Gross, Morgan, Signorielli, & Shanahan, 2002; Signorielli & Morgan, 1990). These findings have led many researchers to the belief that the best universal method for embedding views and standards within a population is television (Bilandzic, 2006; Cheever, 2010).

Perceptions of Dating and Reality

Dating is common among teens and young adults, with 88% of 15 year olds reporting having been in a dating relationship with the average length of four months (Feiring, 1996). Another study found that adolescents ages 13 to 16 had been on an average of six dates in the past month and about twenty-five dates in the past year (Wood et al., 2002). The reason for the discrepancy between the number of dates in a month and in the past year is unclear. The previous statistics present strong evidence for the frequency of dating in teens.

Young adults, whether or not they are new to dating, are looking for guidance on their beliefs and expectations of dating experiences (Ferris, Smith, Greenberg, & Smith, 2007). Television is not only available to young adults; its programming is also filled with both realistic and unrealistic information on romantic relationships. Adolescents are more likely to believe that what they view on television is realistic because they are not as cognitively developed as adults (Rivadeneyra & Lebo, 2008). Young adults are exposed to a variety of dating behaviors and their rewards on television, and are much more likely to imitate these rewarded behaviors in their own relationships (Ferris et al., 2007). Television media also tends to portray romantic relationships in ways that encourage young adults to feel that their own relationships are

inadequate. These feelings and continued messages from television programs may lead adolescents to terminate their dating relationships (Punyanunt-Carter, 2006).

Greeson and Williams (1986) found that youth in seventh and tenth grade were more likely to believe premarital sex was okay after watching music videos. Ward (2002) agrees with findings that suggest that television viewing is positively correlated with the attitude that sex is recreational. Also, young adults who frequently watched soap operas were more likely than young adults who did not frequently watch them to believe that the sexual activities shown were common. The watchers also gave higher estimates of divorce and having children outside of marriage than the non-watchers (Ward, 2002). Watching soap operas is also correlated with an increased number of dating partners and a lower age of initial dating experience (Rivadeneyra & Lebo, 2008).

More research on young women and girls than young men and boys has been done in this area. This might be because females watch more romantic reality and drama shows than males do (Rivadeneyra & Lebo, 2008). Also, women tend to believe that the various dating experiences shown on television are more realistic than men do (Punyanunt-Carter, 2006). Cheever (2010) noted that television idealizes women being in romantic relationships. Viewing television centered on relationships seems to increase the women's desires to be in a romantic relationship (De Souza & Sherry, 2006; Signorielli, 1991; Signorielli, 2001). For women, the number of hours of television watched, the beliefs of the characters, and the way dating relationships were portrayed were weakly correlated with desire to be in a romantic relationship. For girls of high school age, television viewing was positively related with the desire to get married (Signorielli, 1991). Interestingly, Cheever (2010) found a weak correlation between

viewing reality game shows and desire to be in a relationship. The researcher suggests the need for cooperation and strong relationships as a potential reason for this relationship.

Other studies on perceptions of the reality of the dating experience on television have found implications for men as well. One theme that was rewarded for men was viewing women as sexual objects. Another rewarded belief for men was that dating was merely a game (Punyanunt-Carter, 2006). A man's stance against non-marital sex declined in relation to how realistic he believed the television shows with sexual content were. Men were more likely than women to believe the sexual activity they viewed was realistic (Punyanunt-Carter, 2006).

Sexual Behavior and Attitudes

According to Kunkel and his colleagues about 83% of the television shows adolescents watch contain sexual content (Kunkel et al., 2003). To add to this, teens consistently list television as one of their preferred methods of learning sexual information (Ward, 2004; Wood, 2002; Zurbriggen & Morgan, 2006). Reality dating shows may make up some of this viewing and therefore may be where young adults are gathering information on sexuality. Since the late 1990s, these shows have increased in both numbers and popularity (Zurbriggen & Morgan, 2006). Sexual information from these shows may be more quickly absorbed and thought to be accurate because they claim to be using regular people instead of actors and actresses. Many of these shows may also promote harmful stereotypes of men and women to the young adults who are watching. Harmful stereotypes include men frequently portrayed as only being interested in sex, liars, objectifying women, and hurting others. For women, harmful stereotypes include the obsession over one's appearance and the primary use of sexuality for individual gain (Zurbriggen & Morgan, 2006).

There is an abundance of evidence that suggests teens and young adults' sexual behaviors and attitudes towards such behaviors are being influence by their television viewing. Studies have found a negative relationship between the amount of television with sexual content watched by teens and the age at which they have their first sexual experiences (Collins et al., 2011; Martino et al., 2005; Price & Hyde, 2009; Ward, 2002; Zurbriggen & Morgan, 2006). Many of these studies argue that the television programs actually teach the teens specific sexual behaviors. In a study by Martino and colleagues (2005), increased television viewing was related to young adults engaging in coitus at early ages than those who viewed fewer hours of television. Price and Hyde (2009) found that boys in their early teens that engaged in oral sex reported significantly more hours of television viewing than boys that had not engaged in oral sex. For adolescent girls, the number of hours of television viewed with sexual content was correlated with whether or not the girl had had sexual experiences; with fewer hours correlated with a lower chance of having sexual experience. Other studies found that frequent viewing of television programs with sexual content is correlated with more sexual partners and more sexual experiences (Collins et al., 2011; Ward, 2002; Ward & Friedman, 2006). Martino and colleagues (2005) suggest that these behaviors that youth are learning by viewing television increase their sexual confidence and therefore reduce the fear or shyness of sexual experimentation.

While there seems to be more evidence that television media influences young adults' sexual behaviors and attitudes, some researchers strongly disagree. Steinberg and Monahan (2010) argue that the evidence does not suggest that television viewing is related to earlier sexual activity in teens and goes as far as saying that many studies are deceptive in the way that they imply a causal relationship between the two. Instead of blaming television, Steinberg and Monahan (2010) believe that the parents and peers of young adults are likely the largest

influences on these young adults' sexual behaviors. While they do not fully agree, Zurbriggen and Morgan (2006) have found evidence to suggest that in recent years the influence of television on young adult sexual activity has been gradually weakening.

Further debate surrounds whether or not television gives teens and young adults good information about the consequences of sexual activity and safe practices. Some researchers suggest that the risks of sexual behavior is rarely shown on television (Collins et al., 2011; Kunkel et al, 2003). Sexual activity is portrayed as common, casual, and without risks or problems (Rivadeneyra & Lebo, 2008). Other researchers disagree and argue that television often shows people suffering consequences because of their sexual actions. Television shows commonly promote safe sexual practices and therefore encourage young adults to use these practices as well (Martino et al., 2005).

No matter which side of the argument one adheres to, the fact remains that almost half of new sexually transmitted infection (STI) cases are young adults (Price & Hyde, 2009). Thirty-eight percent of sexually active females ages 14-19 have an STI (Collins et al., 2011). Also, for every 1,000 girls aged 15-19, there were 26.6 births with about 89% of these mothers being unwed. It must be noted that the number of births for this age group has been consistently dropping for the last twenty years (Hamilton, Martin, Osterman, & Curtin, 2014).

Aggression, Violence, and Abuse in Dating

As demonstrated previously, dating activities are common among youth, and by their late teens, one study found that about half report having a current partner (Carver, Joyner, & Udry, 2003). For many of these adolescents, aggression, physical violence, and abuse are commonplace (O'Keefe, 2005). A study by Connolly, Friedlander, Pepler, Craig, and Laporte (2010) suggests that about 24% of young adults admit that aggression is present within their

romantic relationship. While the results were self-reported, these individuals disclosed that they consume aggressive media which at least agreed somewhat with how they think about their dating relationships. Another study found similar results. Friedlander, Connolly, Pepler, and Craig (2013) found that 28% admitted in perpetrating violent acts against their dating partner, while 29% report having violent acts committed against them. Interestingly, both young men and young women report committing and being the victims of physical violence within dating relationships at equal rates (Friedlander et al., 2013; Mangello, 2008). This is not the case with married individuals. Married women are more likely than married men to report being the victim of physical violence. Among dating partners, sexual violence and psychological abuse are commonly reported by teens (Mangello, 2008).

A multitude of various television programs including violent television shows, movies, and music videos have all been linked to violent behaviors in youth (Mangello, 2008). Young adults who viewed professional wrestling were more likely than those who did not to commit violent acts against their dating partner. Young women viewing violent rap music videos had a markedly higher acceptance of violence within romantic relationships. While young men exposed to violent rap videos did not show the same increased tolerance for violence that the women did, the young men began the study believing that higher levels of violence were acceptable (Mangello, 2008). A study by Connolly and colleagues (2010) agreed with Mangello's results. Connolly and colleagues (2010) found that men with higher levels of aggression also consumed more aggressive media than men with lower levels of aggression. The women in the study consumed significantly less aggressive television programs and yet they were still influenced by it. Connolly and colleagues (2010) suggests that the aggressive media that both men and women viewed as adolescents helped to desensitize and change their attitudes

to be more accepting of aggression and violence within romantic relationships. For reasons not yet discovered, aggressive media seemed to have a more significant influence over the minority groups in the study (Connolly et al., 2010).

The issue of violence and aggression is not just a problem for youth. Patterns of aggression related to media and television use may begin much earlier and continue much later than the early adolescent and young adult years. Children who watch more aggressive television programs tend to act out aggressively more frequently than children who watch fewer violent programs (Miller, Grabell, Thomas, Bermann, & Graham-Bermann, 2012). Teenagers are learning patterns of behavior and interaction within romantic relationships that will stay with them as they enter more serious and committed relationships (Foshee, Linder, MacDougall, & Bangdiwala, 2001; Friedlander et al., 2013). Viewing violence within romantic relationships on television may lead adolescents to believe that this behavior is an acceptable and normal way to resolve conflicts in their own relationships. Consistent viewing of violent television increases the risk for young adults to commit violent acts against their dating partner as well as increasing the likelihood of victims to believe that having violence committed against themselves is normal. These learned patterns of violence have the potential to harm not only the victims physically, but psychologically as well (Friedlander et al., 2013; O'Keefe, 2005).

Television Viewing and Academic Achievement

The following portion of the literature review will explore the influence of television viewing on academic behavior (achievement). Upon reviewing the literature, it appears that there is a paucity of research in this area. Also, many of the articles are not current, dating from the 1960s to the 1990s, when research in this area was more common. This may also be related to the fact that researchers continually found weak relationships that were often similar to other

studies at the time despite the fact that there was much disagreement between studies. Another possibility may be the issue of separating television from other media or the difficulty of obtaining access to do research with certain age groups.

The research in the area of television watching and academic achievement will be divided differently because instead of exploring behaviors and then looking at their individual relationships with television, the relationship between television viewing and academic achievement is explored and then the factors that may influence this relationship (or lack thereof) are investigated. This led to the existing literature being summarized in the following subtopics: hypotheses on the relationship between television viewing and academic achievement, the type of relationships or non-relationships found in the literature, age trends, types of programming, socioeconomic status and IQ, and family stress and unemployment. While conventional wisdom may say that the amount of television young adults watch is at least partially responsible for declining academic achievement, the debate is still wide open (Harborg, 1995; Munasib & Bhattacharya, 2010).

Common Hypotheses

Although not all studies use exactly the same wording, broken down into meaning, there are five main hypotheses that are most frequently used throughout the research that attempts to understand the relationship between television viewing and academic achievement. Four out of these five state that an inverse relationship exists between the amount of time spent watching television and academic achievement. Only one of the five hypotheses suggests a positive relationship. The hypotheses include the displacement hypothesis, the passivity hypothesis, the concentration hypothesis, the depreciation hypothesis, and the facilitation hypothesis.

Displacement hypothesis. The first and by far the most common is the displacement hypothesis. The displacement hypothesis suggests an inverse relationship based on the idea that as an individual views more television they will spend less time on academic-related behaviors such as studying, reading, and doing homework. There have been many studies that have attempted to support this hypothesis. Studies by Hornik (1981), Potter (1987), and Hagborg (1995) supported the displacement hypothesis, suggesting that less time is spent with academic activities as more television is watched. While a direct relationship between television viewing and academic achievement was not established, it is assumed that academic achievement would suffer as the result of less time spent on academic activities. Studies in other parts of the world have found similar results, including one in Pakistan, which found that children who spent more hours watching television spent less time with school-related activities (Ahmed, 1980). Another in India has found that teachers report that scholastic performance, especially in math, has declined and that students are less diligent with their homework since the television has become increasingly common (Shejwal & Purayidathil, 2006). Increased television time also has a negative relationship with the amount of time spent with friends, reading, household activities, community activities, hobbies, and sports (Williams & Hanford, 1986). Other studies found that more time spent watching television was weakly related to less time spent doing homework (Hornik, 1981; Neuman, 1988; Walberg & Tasi, 1984). Spending less time with these activities may have an indirect influence on academic achievement. A more recent study agreed, finding that more hours of television viewing was related to less time spent doing homework, studying, and reading for pleasure (Shin, 2004).

Despite a number of studies that provide supporting evidence for the displacement hypothesis, others have found little evidence for it (Caldas & Bankston, 1999; Hofferth, 2010).

These studies make the point that it depends on what television viewing is replacing. While some of the studies show that television viewing time replaces academic behaviors, some of the time spent with television may also be replacing time with activities that do not promote academic achievement such as time wasting, playing games, and socializing (Munasib & Bhattacharya, 2010; Williams & Hanford, 1986). Other studies found no significant relationship between the number of hours spent watching television and the amount of time spent doing homework and other achievement related activities (Hofferth, 2010; Keith et al., 1986). An individual's environment may also be a factor in determining how harmful the time displaced by watching television is. If the person has plenty of learning opportunities, and he or she spend their time watching television instead, they may be harming their achievement more than the person who does not have as many learning opportunities (Caldas & Bankston, 1999). A further problem with this hypothesis is linking it to academic achievement. Fewer hours spent with studying and homework does not necessarily mean that actual academic achievement will fall. Could a certain amount of television viewing actually help students as much as studying or doing homework?

Passivity hypothesis. The passivity hypothesis, as used by Salomon (1984) states that the low effort required in television viewing will transfer to school subjects such as reading. In other words, watching television trains the individual to use less effort in other areas like academics. Postman (1985) adds to this by saying that television viewing encourages passivity and acceptance towards the content being viewed. While many fewer studies have been done to test this hypothesis, there has been support for it (Shin, 2004). Koolstra and van der Voort (1996) argue that watching television can increase mental laziness. Evidence of reduced motivation has also been found (Postman, 1985; Winn, 1977). Increased television viewing may

also lead individuals to use less effort when attempting academic problems, such as mathematical problems (Suedfeld, Little, Rank, Rank, & Ballard, 1986). Studies have also suggested that watching television may lead to mental habits such as shallow or brief information processing (Collins, 1991; Greenfield, 1984; Healy, 1990; MacBeth, 1996; Singer, 1980; Valkenburg & van der Voort, 1994). Not processing academic information and problems deeply could lead to inferior learning and lower levels of academic achievement. Despite this, the relationship between the passivity hypothesis and actual academic achievement is unknown.

Concentration deterioration hypothesis. The concentration deterioration hypothesis, also commonly referred to as the attention-arousal hypothesis, accuses the use of a fast pace and rapidly changing context, environment, characters, stories, and colors used in television programs of hurting children's ability to concentrate (Shin, 2004). Some studies suggest that television viewing may actually work to shorten children's attention spans (Healy, 1990; Singer, 1980) or be related to attention problems if viewed at an early age (Swing, Gentile, Anderson, & Walsh, 2010). Television viewing may also hurt a child's ability to concentrate while reading which would negatively impact their reading speed and reading development (Gadberry, 1980; Hornik, 1978). Koolstra and van der Voort (1996) agreed, finding that children viewing more television spent less time reading and were more likely to have problems concentrating. Beyond concentration, some studies have linked higher amounts of television viewing with reduced impulse control (Shin, 2004) as well as reduced perseverance and delay of gratification (Shejwal & Purayidathil, 2006). Some studies have gone even as far as to say that television viewing may have a link to attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) (Christakis, Zimmerman, DiGiuseppe, & McCarty, 2004; Hartmann, 1996).

Depreciation hypothesis. The depreciation hypothesis is that because television is very entertaining, individuals will choose to watch television instead of reading and engaging in other learning or academic behaviors. This hypothesis is one of the least commonly found in the literature, but does have some support including studies by Beentjes and van der Voort (1988) and Koolstra, van der Voort, and van der Kamp (1997). A study done in India found something similar, suggesting the reason that high school aged boys in general do more poorly than girls academically is the boys' have more freedom to view television entertainment while girls are more strictly controlled and monitored by their parents (Shejwal & Purayidathil, 2006). Not all studies supported this hypothesis, however. Harborg (1995) found no significant relationship between television viewing and motivation and time spent on homework.

Facilitation hypothesis. The final major hypothesis is the facilitation hypothesis. The facilitation hypothesis is very different than the others in that it proposes a positive relationship between television viewing and academic achievement. Several studies acknowledge the potential power of television for good noting that television programs convey knowledge and open experiences that the viewer would not otherwise have or be able to have (Bianculli, 1992; Briller & Miller, 1984; Davies, 1989; Huston et al., 1992; Mares & Woodard, 2001; Rushton, 1979). Some studies have found a positive relationship between television viewing and academic achievement (Blosser, 1988; Lemish & Rice, 1986). Television also has the potential to help improve reading skills as individuals may become motivated to read more about what they are viewing. Children's reading ability has also seen improvement if they have to read subtitles while watching television (Koolstra et al., 1997). It is noteworthy that a study by Shin (2004) did not find evidence for the facilitation hypothesis.

So far, this literature review has only just begun addressing the facilitation hypothesis. There is much more information that could fall under the facilitation hypothesis because it makes such a general statement. This information will instead be discussed later under other variables that impact the relationship between television and academic achievement. These other variables include the types of television programs watched, the amount of time spent watching television, the age of the viewer, socioeconomic status of the viewer, and viewer IQ.

In general, there is support for each of these hypotheses. Some researchers also note the potential for harm if all the hypotheses suggesting negative relationships are true and how they may work together to create problems with achievement (Ennemoser & Schneider, 2007). Support for both positive and negative relationships between television viewing and academic achievement also advocate the need for a search for confounding or extraneous variables. These variables will be discussed in detail later on.

Relationship Trends

Among the research done in the area of academic achievement and television viewing, there are a variety of different reports on the direction, type, strength, and significance of the relationship between these variables. There is much support both for and against a relationship between television viewing and academic achievement (Beentjes & van der Voort, 1988; Foertsh, 1992). Despite this, there does tend to be more support for such a relationship than against it. Studies have consistently found weak negative correlations between the number of hours spent viewing television and academic achievement (Ennemoser & Schneider, 2007). None of the studies provide strong enough evidence to suggest a causal relationship but instead tended to find correlational relationships. While many of the studies support linear correlational relationships, a significant number endorse some form of curvilinear relationship. It is worth

noting that just because a study found a linear relationship does not mean that it provides evidence against a curvilinear one. Without looking for and running appropriate analyses a curvilinear relationship could easily be interpreted as linear.

Linear relationships. There are numerous studies that have found an inverse relationship between the number of hours spent watching television and academic achievement (Comstock & Paik, 1991; Comstock & Scharrer, 1999; Fitzpatrick, Barnett, & Pagani, 2012; Henggeler & Cohen, 1991; Hershberger, 2002; Keith et al., 1986; Koshal, Koshal, & Gupta, 1996; Landhuis, Perry, & Hancox, 2012; Shejwal & Purayidathil, 2006; Shin, 2004). Many of these examined overall academic achievement across many school subjects. This group of studies spans different age groups including preschool, elementary school, and high school. Further findings on the relationship trends based on age will be discussed later on. Something shared among many of these studies is the weak nature of the relationships. While Keith and colleagues (1986) disagree, several studies suggest that linear relationships between television viewing and achievement are weak because they are in fact curvilinear.

C**urvilinear relationships.** One of the main proponents of the curvilinear relationship theory came to this conclusion by using a meta-analysis of the previous research on K-12 students (Williams et al., 1982). Upon completing their analysis, they found that 10 hours per week was the optimal television viewing time. The relationship between television viewing and academic achievement was slightly positive up to 10 hours per week at which point the relationship became weak to moderately negative. Neuman (1986) found similar results, with 2 to 3 hours per day for children being best but later revising that to 2 to 4 hours per day (Neuman, 1988). Neuman's findings suggested a moderate positive correlation up to this 2 to 4 hour range

with a sharp drop off with continued viewing. When the results were analyzed as a linear relationship, there appear to be a weak negative correlation between television viewing and academic achievement. These results may explain why many of the linear relationships appear to be so weak. They may also explain why some studies find no significant relationship at all. Additional evidence for the curvilinear relationship theory can be found under the age trends section.

No relationship. Whereas there are an abundant number of studies supporting a relationship between television viewing and academic achievement, there are those that do not find a connection (Mielke, 1994; Hargborg, 1995; Scarborough, 1989). Other studies found relationships, but upon controlling for certain extraneous variables, the correlation disappeared. For example, three studies, which after finding support for a relationship, controlled for IQ scores and socioeconomic status found the relationship vanish (Gaddy, 1986; Gortmaker, Salter, Walker, & Dietz, 1990; Ritchie, Price, & Roberts, 1987). Munasib and Bhattacharya (2010) found similar results. Upon controlling for parent and child characteristics, the relationship between television viewing and academic achievement in the children disappeared. This was not always the case however. Koolstra and colleagues (1997) maintained their positive relationship even when controlling for other characteristics.

Age Trends

Another factor within the television-academic achievement relationship seems to be the age of the individual. In this case, the studies agree that the achievement of older children and young adults tends to suffer more than younger children when spending large amounts of time watching television (Ennemoser, 2003; Schiffer, 2003). A study by Razel (2001) attempted to

specifically identify optimal viewing times for academic achievement based on age. Razel (2001) was able to determine that the ideal amount of viewing for age 1 was 3.5 hours/day, age 4 was 3 hours/day, age 7 was 2.5 hours/day, age 9 was 2 hours/day, age 12 was 1.5 hours/day, age 15 was 1 hour/day, age 17 was half an hour per day, and no viewing at all was best at age 20. This means that all ages up to 20 show a curvilinear relationship between television viewing and academic achievement, lending further support for this hypothesis. Using this data, it was also determined that each hour closer to the optimum saw about a 30% increase in grade level, but every hour beyond the ideal saw about a 40% decrease in grade level (Razel, 2001). Overall, this means that television does seem to have potential for academic benefit but an even greater potential for harm. Likely because of the amounts that children are viewing over their optimal amount, a generally negative relationship was for children 7 and up. For adolescents, the relationship was found to be even more negative. However, for children age 6 and under a positive relationship was found (Razel, 2001). Previous studies have seen similar results, finding a positive relationship between television viewing and academic achievement for children in early elementary school but a negative relationship for students in high school (Neuman, 1988; Neuman, 1991). Another possible explanation is that young children do not experience consequences of lots of television viewing on their academic achievement while they are young, but instead face the repercussions when they become adolescents and young adults (Ennemoser & Schneider, 2007).

Types of Television Programs

The type of television program that is being watched also has been found to be related to achievement. Most of the studies that looked into this relationship specifically looked at whether educational type programs would have a positive relationship with achievement and therefore

most of this section will be focused on educational programming. Another important note about this research is that it has mostly been done on children as opposed to adolescents and young adults.

Whereas educational television programs have the potential to boost a child's academic achievement (Huston & Wright, 1998), entertainment type television programs have been found to be inversely related to academic achievement for all ages (Ennemoser & Schneider, 2007; Koolstra et al., 1997; Neuman, 1991). Ennemoser and Schneider (2007) found specific reductions in reading achievement for children who watched higher quantities of entertainment programs. Cognitive performance in areas like memory and concentration which are necessary for academic achievement decreased after watching exciting programming (Maass, Klöpper, Michel, & Lohaus, 2011).

Educational programs have generally been found to have positive or non-significant correlations with academic achievement (Koolstra et al., 1997; Potter, 1987). For this review, positive relationships were mostly found. Young children's vocabulary was found to improve if they watched Sesame Street (Rice et al., 1990; Wright et al., 2001). This relationship weakened as the child aged likely because the show's target audience is very young children. Research by Anderson, Huston, Schmitt, Linebarger, and Wright (2001) discovered that the educational television viewing of age 5 boys could positively predict their science, English, and math grades in high school. Another study examining reading achievement found that children who viewed more educational television programming did better (Ennemoser & Schneider, 2007). Other studies concurred, finding increases in literacy for young children who watched educational television programs (Anderson et al., 2001; Fisch & Truglio, 2001). Further research into children's interest in reading about what they view on television and therefore improving their

reading ability may also prove useful (Koolstra et al., 1997). The benefit of educational programs may not be confined to young children and reading ability. Fisch (2004) suggests that older children watching educational programming may be more motivated to read, have better knowledge of current events, and have increased science and math ability. Overall, these studies suggest that it is not some inherent quality of the television itself that hurts academic achievement, but that the programming itself may be an important factor (Caldas & Bankston, 1999).

Socioeconomics and IQ

Both socioeconomic status (SES) and IQ seem to play a part in the relationship between television viewing and academic achievement. SES and IQ are almost always used together for the purpose of this research. While some of the studies do not mention SES, it is still a likely suspect. For example, as previously mentioned, one of the first studies to examine the relationship between television and academic achievement found that television ownership was correlated with achievement (Greenstein, 1954). It is likely that SES is behind this particular relationship and television ownership on its own is not related to academic achievement. Another example is a study by Caldas and Bankston (1999), who found that television viewing had a moderate inverse correlation with the academic performance of advantaged White children, and a very weak positive correlation with the academic performance of disadvantaged Black children. If their finding that the Black children watched about three more hours of television per day is taken into account alongside other studies that show that more television viewing is related to lower academic achievement, it is obvious that something else, likely SES, is playing a role in this relationship. This is supported by many studies that show individuals with lower SES tend to watch more television (Hargborg, 1995; Keith et al., 1986; Morgan &

Gross, 1980; Potter, 1987; Zuckerman, Singer, & Singer, 1980). Caldas and Bankston (1999) also lend support to this idea as they note that if the child has plenty of opportunities and resources to help them learn, and instead they are watching television, their academic achievement could suffer. However, if the child does not have those opportunities and resources, the television may help them slightly.

Many studies that find relationships between watching television and academic performance also find these relationships disappear when SES and IQ variables are controlled (Gaddy, 1986; Gortmaker et al., 1990; Munasib & Bhattacharya, 2010; Ritchie et al., 1987). Despite maintaining the relationship after controlling for SES and IQ, Ennemoser and Schneider (2007) believe similarly, calling SES and IQ stronger predictors of academic achievement than television viewing. Some studies have shown that television viewing has a negative correlation with academic achievement for high IQ students and a positive correlation for low IQ children (Fetler, 1984; Keith et al., 1986; Morgan & Gross, 1980; Williams et al., 1982). This may also contribute to why studies continually find weak relationships between television viewing and achievement.

Negative correlations between IQ and television viewing have also been found (LaBlonde, 1966; Ridley-Johnson, Cooper, & Chance, 1983). The LaBlonde (1966) study only found this inverse correlation for boys but not girls. It is worth noting that parents who set rules around television viewing had children with higher academic performance and IQ scores (Ridley-Johnson et al., 1983).

Family Stress and Unemployment

Stress levels within one's family have been found to be positively correlated with the amount of time spent watching television (Henggeler & Cohen, 1991). This may be another

factor in the television viewing-academic achievement relationship. The researchers suggest that television may be used as a way to cope with stress for the children in these families. Children with mothers who had attended college were also found to spend less time watching television and more time reading (Hofferth, 2010).

A study by Landhuis and colleagues (2012) examined television viewing as a child and adolescent and their relationship to unemployment as an adult (ages 18-32). Despite only being weak, there was positive correlation for men between hours of television watched as a child/adolescent and the likelihood of being unemployed for at least 6 months between the ages of 18 to 32. The correlation remained after controlling for SES, cognitive ability, and indications of behavior problems. There was a similar correlation for women but it was not statistically significant.

There is a paucity of current research on the relationships between television viewing, dating behaviors, and academic achievement. In the case of dating behavior, there does seem to be research surrounding the topic, especially on sexual behavior, aggression, and violence. Outside of these areas, there seems to be little research on dating behaviors and television viewing. Many of the articles that do exist are twenty-five years old or older. Since the 1990s, there seems to be fewer research studies completed in this area. While there are a greater number of research articles specifically on television viewing and academic achievement, the articles seem to be older than those for dating behavior. Most of them are from the 1980s and 1990s with very few being within the last 10 years. For academic achievement specifically, many of the studies have been done on children as opposed to young adults. The lack of current research in these areas necessitates new and further research on television viewing, dating behavior, academic achievement, and young adults.

Dating and Academics

The third and final section of the literature review will briefly discuss the research on the relationship between dating and academics. Of the three areas covered in this literature review, this area has the smallest pool of research from which to draw. Most of the available research centers on adolescents and high school aged individuals and many of these studies include dating violence as a main focus. Therefore, this portion of the literature review will cover the influence dating has on academic performance as well as a discussion of the research on the relationship between dating violence and academics.

Dating and Academic Performance

In general, the research does not seem to be optimistic in terms of the impact dating has on the academic performance of adolescents and teens. One of the earliest studies to look at these variables together was a study by Grinder (1966). He gathered data from high school students about dating on the topics of sexual gratification, independence assertion, status seeking, and participative eagerness. Each of the four areas was found to be negatively related to academic performance measure by GPA for boys. For girls, independence assertion and sexual gratification were inversely related with GPA.

Another study, by Quatman, Sampson, Robinson, and Watson (2001) found similar results. Dating frequency was found to be inversely related to academic achievement in terms of GPA and achievement test scores. Those who dated more frequently rated themselves and were rated by their teachers as performing more poorly academically. This was true for both males and females as well as across grades (8^{th}, 10^{th}, and 12^{th} grades were included). Another important finding was that frequent dating was related to lower academic motivation and more commonly experiencing symptoms of depression.

Taking these findings into the realm of academic behaviors, one study found equally pessimistic results. Middle and high school-aged participants were divided into four groups based on how frequently they reported dating (Orpinas, Horne, Song, Reeves, & Hsieh, 2013). The study found that the top two groups had significantly more academic problems than individuals in the lower two groups. Individuals who dated more frequently had worse study skills and dropped out of school at a rate four times higher than those in the two lower frequency groups. Those who dated more also reported twice the use of substances such as alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana. This additional information suggests that there are likely other variables involved in the relationship between dating behavior and academics.

Not all studies have found dating to have only negative relationships to academics. In a qualitative study, Stefan (2006) found that the goals and values of the individual as well as their dating partner helped to determine the impact of the dating relationship on the academic outcomes. Stefan writes that girls with dating partners that highly value academics may encourage and motivate them to perform better academically. Also, girls that highly value academics may not be as negatively impacted by dating. Despite this, the girls in the study felt that dating took time away from academic activities and felt social pressure to be in a dating relationship.

Dating Violence and Academics

Similar to the previous section, the majority of the articles that focus on dating violence and academics have used adolescent and teenage participants. This section examines a more preventable and serious problem that dating may cause for academic achievement and behaviors: abuse. In the reverse, the research also discusses how academic difficulties and academic strain are related to dating violence.

Although the research shows links between dating abuse and risky adolescent behavior, it did not show a relationship between abuse and academic achievement (Foshee, Reyes, Gottfredson, Chang, & Ennett, 2013). Physical, sexual, and psychological abuse were not related to either grades nor academic aspirations. At the same time, they were related to an increased use of alcohol, tobacco, and marijuana use. These findings that risky behaviors were not related to decreased academic performance seem counter-intuitive and call for further investigation.

What about the other way around? How are academic problems and stress related to dating abuse? Schnurr (2009) found that early academic difficulties (among other factors such as alcohol and drug use, low parental monitoring, and being involved with antisocial peers) put adolescents at risk for committing dating violence. In contrast, Mason and Smithey (2012) found that academic stress in college was not related to dating violence. Instead, general strain and strain within the romantic relationship were found to be related to dating violence. It can be concluded, therefore, that learning and relationship problems may lead to dating violence while academic stress does not. Additional research is necessary to support these findings.

Despite the somewhat encouraging sign that there are a number of recent research reports published in this area, there is still a significant paucity of research that exists. Further research is needed to examine these relationships in greater detail. The relationship between dating and academics should be especially concerning to researchers because for most adolescents, teens, and young adults these are significant parts of their daily lives.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The design of this study was quantitative non-experimental descriptive using survey methodology. This design was ideal because of the variables and data examined by this study. These data were gathered in such a way as to make correlational and predictive analysis possible.

Population and Sample

The population from which this research study drew its sample was students attending Andrews University. Andrews University is a small university in southwest Michigan with close to three and a half thousand students. The sample of convenience consisted of 202 undergraduate and graduate students attending the university during the winter semester of 2015. Of the sample, 65 (32.2%) were men and 137 (67.8%) were women. The largest ethnic group in the sample was White and consisted of 71 (35.1%) participants. Black or African American participants were the next largest group at 35 (17.3%). The number of Hispanic participants followed at a close third, with 33 (16.3%). The Mixed race group had 30 (14.9%) participants, the Asian group had 27 (13.4%), and there were also 6 (3.0%) participants who listed themselves as Other. There were no Native American, Native Hawaiian, nor any Pacific Islanders who participated in this research study.

As for academic majors, the participants were very diverse. There were only four majors that had a group of participants larger than 10. Those groups were Engineering (13), Psychology (12), Speech-Language Pathology & Audiology (12), and Nursing (11). There were 47 students who did not indicate their major. There were 30 (14.9%) Freshman, 39 (19.3%) Sophomores, 42 (20.8%) Juniors, 54 (26.7%) Seniors, and 37 (18.3%) listed as Other (presumably this group consists of graduate level students and "super seniors"). The ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 39, with 149 (73.7%) falling within the ages of 18 to 22. Only 13 (6.5%) were 30 or above.

Research Hypotheses

Ten research hypotheses were tested in this study. All hypotheses were tested in their null form.

Hypothesis 1: There are positive correlations between television viewing (Total viewing, Informational, Entertainment, Educational, and Movies) and the levels of expectations (Attractive, Physical Contact, Spends Time, Gifts, Compliments, and Kind Acts) one has about their dating partner, as well as with physical touch (general, kissing, more intimate) within the dating relationship. As television viewing increases, the level of expectations and frequency of physical touch will increase.

Hypothesis 2: There is an inverse correlation between television viewing (Total viewing, Informational, Entertainment, Educational, and Movies) and the well-being (time spent together, relationship satisfaction, and relationship length) of the dating relationship. As television viewing increases, the amount of time participants spend with their dating partners, their satisfaction with their relationship, and the length of their current relationship will decrease.

Hypothesis 3: There are inverse correlations between television viewing (Total viewing, Informational, Entertainment, Educational, and Movies) and GPA as well as positive academic behaviors (Homework Time and Study Time). As television viewing increases, GPA and the amount of time spent engaging in positive academic behaviors will decrease.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive correlation between television viewing (Total viewing, Informational, Entertainment, Educational, and Movies) and negative academic behaviors (Skip, Procrastinate, and Cheat). As television viewing increases, the frequency of negative academic behaviors will increase.

Hypothesis 5: There are negative relationships between dating behaviors (Physical Touch, Kissing, More intimate interaction, and Time Spent) and GPA as well as positive academic behaviors (Homework Time and Study Time). As dating behaviors increase, GPA and time spent in positive academic behaviors will decrease.

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive relationship between dating behaviors (Physical Touch, Kissing, More intimate interaction, and Time Spent) and negative academic behaviors (Procrastinating, Skipping, and Cheating). As dating behaviors increase, the frequency of negative academic behaviors will increase.

Hypothesis 7: There are negative relationships between dating expectations (Attractive, Physical Contact, Spends Time, Gifts, Compliments, and Kind Acts) and GPA as well as positive academic behaviors (Homework Time and Study Time). As dating expectations increase, GPA and the time spent in positive academic behaviors will decrease.

Hypothesis 8: There is a positive relationship between dating expectations (Attractive, Physical Contact, Spends Time, Gifts, Compliments, and Kind Acts) and negative academic

behaviors (Procrastinating, Skipping, and Cheating). As dating expectations increase, the frequency of negative academic behaviors will increase.

Hypothesis 9: There are positive correlations between dating relationship well-being (time spent together, satisfaction, and relationship length) and GPA as well as positive academic behaviors (Homework Time and Study Time). As dating relationship well-being increases, GPA and the time spent in positive academic behaviors will also increase.

Hypothesis 10: There is an inverse correlation between dating relationship well-being (time spent together, satisfaction, and relationship length) and negative academic behaviors (Procrastinating, Skipping, and Cheating). As dating relationship well-being increases, the frequency of negative academic behaviors will decrease.

Definition of Variables

The following terms are operationally defined for this study:

1. *Television viewing* is measured by item numbers 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Numbers 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12 measure the amount of television viewed total and how much they view from major genres.
2. *Dating* is measured by items 13 through 24 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Numbers 13 through 24 measure dating behaviors, dating expectations, and dating well-being.
3. *Academics* is measured by items 7 and 27 through 31 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Numbers 7 and 27 through 31 measure academic achievement, positive academic behaviors, and negative academic behaviors.

4. *Total viewing* is measured by item number 8 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 8 asks the participant to indicate how much television they watch per day including television shows viewing online.

5. *Informational viewing* is measured by item number 9 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 9 asks the participant to indicate how much news television they watch per day.

6. *Entertainment viewing* is measured by item number 10 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 10 asks the participant to indicate how much entertainment television they watch per day.

7. *Educational viewing* is measured by item number 11 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 11 asks the participant to indicate how much educational television they watch such as the History channel, Discovery channel and documentaries per day.

8. *Movies* is measured by item number 12 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 12 asks the participant to indicate how many movies they watch per week.

9. *Academic Achievement* is assessed by number 7 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 7 asks the participant to indicate their cumulative undergraduate GPA.

10. *Expectations* is measured by item numbers 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, and 22 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Numbers 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, and 22 ask the participant about the importance they place on physical attractiveness, physical

contact, spending time, receiving gifts, receiving compliments, and does nice things for him/her within dating relationships.

11. *Attractive* is measured by item 17 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 17 asks the participant to indicate the importance of attractive appearance in his/her dating partner.

12. *Physical Contact* is measured by item 18 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 18 asks the participant to indicate the importance of their dating partner making physical contact with him/her daily.

13. *Spends Time* is measured by item 19 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 19 asks the participant to indicate the importance of their dating partner spending time with him/her daily.

14. *Gifts* is measured by item 20 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 20 asks the participant to indicate the importance of receiving gifts from his/her dating partner.

15. *Compliments* is measured by item 21 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 21 asks the participant to indicate the importance of receiving regular compliments from his/her dating partner.

16. *Kind Acts* is measured by item 22 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 22 asks the participant to indicate the importance of his/her dating partner regularly going out of their way to do nice things for him/her (excluding gifts).

17. *Dating Behavior* is measured by items 13, 14, and 15 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Numbers 13, 14, and 15 ask the participant

how many times a day they: hug/hold hands with and have other contact with their boyfriend/girlfriend, kiss their boyfriend/girlfriend, and how often they have physical contact with their girlfriend/boyfriend that is more intimate than hugging, holding hands, and kissing.

18. *Physical Touch* is measured by item 13 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 13 asks the participant how many times per day he/she hugs, hold hands with, or has any other physical contact (excluding kissing and sexual behaviors) with his/her dating partner.

19. *Kiss* is measured by item 14 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 14 asks the participant how many times per day he/she kisses his/her dating partner.

20. *More Intimate* is measured by item 15 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 15 asks the participant how many times per week he/she engages in activities more intimate than kissing with his/her dating partner.

21. *Dating Relationship Well-being* is measured by items 16, 23, and 24 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Numbers 16, 23, and 24 ask the participant to indicate the amount of time they spend with their dating partner each week, how satisfied they are with their relationship, and how long they have been in their current dating relationship.

22. *Amount of time* is measured by item number 16 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 16 asks the participant to indicate how much time they spend with their boyfriend/girlfriend each week.

23. *Satisfaction level* is measured by item number 23 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 23 asks the participant to indicate how satisfied there are with their current relationship.

24. *Length of current relationship* is measured by item number 24 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAMI). Number 24 asks the participant to indicate how long they have been in their current dating relationship.

25. *Academic major* is assessed by item number 25 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAMI). Number 25 asks the participant to indicate their current academic major(s).

26. *Academic major changes* is measured by item number 24 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAMI). Number 24 asks the participant to indicate how many times they have changed their academic major.

27. *Negative academic behaviors* is measured by items 27, 28, and 29 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAMI). Numbers 27, 28, and 29 ask the participant to indicate the frequency of which they have skipped class, procrastinated, and engaged in academically dishonest behavior.

28. *Skipping class* is measured by item 27 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAMI). Number 27 asks the participant to indicate the frequency of which they have skipped class in the past month without a doctor's note.

29. *Procrastination* is measured by item 28 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAMI). Number 28 asks the participant to indicate how often they procrastinate or put off studying and doing homework.

30. *Cheating* is measured by item 29 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAMI). Number 29 asks the participant to indicate how often they engage in academically dishonest behavior.

31. *Positive academic behaviors* is measured by items 30 and 31 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAMI). Numbers 30 and 31 ask the participant to indicate how much time they spend doing homework and studying each week.

32. *Homework Time* is measured by item 30 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAMI). Number 30 asks the participant to indicate how much time they spend doing homework each day.

33. *Study Time* is measured by item 31 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAMI). Number 31 asks the participant to indicate how much time they spend studying each day.

34. *Age* is assessed by self-report on item number 6 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 6 asks the participant to indicate their age.

35. *Gender* is assessed by self-report on item number 1 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 1 asks the participant to indicate their gender.

36. *Ethnicity* is assessed by self-report on item number 2 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 2 asks the participant to indicate their ethnicity.

37. *Year of Study* is assessed by self-report on item number 3 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 3 asks the participant to indicate whether they are a Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, or Other.

38. *Long-Distance* is assessed by self-report on item number 4 in the Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument (MSIAAMI). Number 4 asks the participant to indicate whether or not they consider themselves to be in a long distance relationship.

Instrumentation

The instrument used is the *Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument* (MSIAAMI). This instrument was developed by the author for the purpose of this study. The MSIAAMI is a self-report questionnaire to collect data regarding the number of hours of television viewed with a focus on young adult relationships and social interaction, expectations within dating relationship, physical touch within dating relationship, satisfaction within dating relationship, length of current dating relationship, academic achievement, academic major, and academic behaviors. The paper version of the instrument consists of 31 questions with eight fill-in-the-blank items, nine 7-point Likert-type items, and fourteen select-the-best-answer items that were coded for input into SPSS. The online version of the instrument which was solely used for this study is exactly the same except the eight fill-in-the-blank items became select the best answer items. The fill-in-the-blank items gather data regarding age, cumulative GPA, physical touch, and amount of time spent with dating partner. The Likert-type items gather data regarding expectations and satisfaction within the dating relationship. The select-the-best-answer questions gather data on gender, ethnicity, amount of television viewed, length of current dating relationship, number of academic major changes, and frequency of certain academic behaviors. Since reliability and validity data on the MSIAAMI were not available at the beginning of this

research project, this study served as a pilot (See Appendix C for copy). Reliability analyses were run on the television viewing items and dating expectations items upon the completion of data collection. The analyses revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .573 for the television viewing items and .734 for dating expectations (see Table 1 and 2). While the reliability for the television viewing items is not within a desirable range, a reasonable explanation is that participants did not indicate viewing informational or educational television frequently.

Table 1

Reliability Statistics for Viewing

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.573	.608	4

Table 2

Reliability Statistics for Expectations

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.734	.735	6

Data Collection

After the research proposal had been approved, the study was submitted to the Andrews University Institutional Review Board (IRB) requesting permission to conduct the study with its

undergraduate and graduate students. The participant pool was a sample of convenience contacted by the researcher through the emailing system of individual departments on campus as well as a campus-wide emailing system. The email used to recruit participants contained a greeting and information including a brief description of the research, the need for participants, the incentive for participating, and a link to the survey (See Appendix B for recruitment script). Students were able to contact the researcher by replying to the email address that sent out the recruitment email. These email addresses then forwarded emails to the researcher's email address.

Upon choosing to participate, the participant followed the link provided in the email to the online version of the instrument. The first page of the online version was an informed consent form on which participants had to indicate that they agreed to participate before continuing on with the survey. Without consent, the survey would not allow the individual to continue. The participants could choose to discontinue the instrument at any point by simply exiting the survey window. Responses were stored online. Arriving at the end of the instrument, participants were provided with a link to another webpage which allowed them to enter the drawing for the incentive. The incentive consisted of a drawing for a $20 gift card to the Family Dollar store within walking distance of Andrews University. If they wished to be entered into the drawing, participants were asked to enter some kind of contact information on the second (and completely unrelated) webpage. All participants were treated in accordance with the Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct of the American Psychological Association (American Psychological Association, 2010).

Out of 240 individuals who agreed to participate, 202 answered some of the questions and 155 completed the survey in its entirety. The data was downloaded onto an Excel file and

scored as needed. After scoring, the data was transferred to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 22 for analysis.

Scoring

After the surveys were collected, they were scored using appropriate keys for each section of the measuring instrument according to the following:

1. Television viewing data were gathered by items 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12. 0 minutes was assigned for 0 minutes, 15 minutes was assigned for the 1-30 minute range, 90 minutes was assigned for the 1-2 hour range, 210 minutes was assigned for the 3-4 hour range, 330 minutes was assigned for the 5-6 hour range, and 420 minutes was assigned for the 7+ hour range. For item 9, 0 movies was assigned for 0 movies, 1.5 movies was assigned for 1-2 movie range, 3.5 movies was assigned for 3-5 movie range, 5.5 movies was assigned for 5-6 movie range, 7.5 movies was assigned for 7-8 movie range, and 9.5 movies was assigned for 9+ movies.

2. Expectations data were gathered by items 17, 18, 19, 20, 21 and 22. These were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale with 1 representing little/no importance, 2-3 representing low importance, 4 representing moderate importance, and 5-6 representing high importance, and 7 representing very high importance.

3. Physical touch amount data were gathered as the number of times reported per day from the sum across items 13, 14, and 15.

4. Amount of time spent with dating partner data were gathered by item 16 and were entered as number of hours per week. Times less than an hour (15 minutes to 45 minutes) were entered as half an hour.

5. Satisfaction level data were gathered by item 23. This was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale with 1 representing very low satisfaction, 2-3 representing low satisfaction, 4

representing moderate satisfaction, 5-6 representing high satisfaction, and 7 representing very high satisfaction.

6. Length of current dating relationship data were gathered by item 24 as the length in months reported.

7. Academic achievement data were gathered by item 7 as current GPA and entered as reported.

8. Academic major data were gathered by item 25 (based on the majors that the university offers) and converted into numbers with:

Accounting = 1, Agriculture = 2, Animal Science = 3, Architectural Studies (Non-Professional) = 4, Architectural Studies (Professional Degree Track) = 5, Art = 6, Aviation = 7, Behavioral Science = 8, Biochemistry = 9, Biology = 10, Biophysics = 11, Business Administration = 12, Chemistry = 13, Computing = 14, Construction Management = 15, Design = 16, Documentary Film = 17, Economics = 18, Electronic Journalism = 19, Engineering = 21, English = 22, Family Studies = 23, Finance = 24, French for International Trade = 25, French for K-12 = 26, French/Spanish & International Business = 27, French Studies = 28, General Business = 29, Liberal Arts = 30, History = 31, Horticulture = 32, Information Systems = 33, Interior Design = 34, International Agriculture Development = 35, International Business = 36, Journalism = 37, Management = 38, Marketing = 39, Mathematics = 40, Mathematics Education = 41, Medical Laboratory Science = 42, Music = 43, Music Education = 44, Nursing = 45, Nursing (Completion) = 46, Nursing (NCLEX-Preparatory) = 47, Nutrition Science = 48, Photography = 49, Physical Therapy = 50, Physics = 51, Physics Education = 52, Political Science = 53, Psychology = 54, Public Relations = 55, Religion = 56, Secondary Education = 57, Social Studies = 58, Social Work = 59, Sociology = 60, Spanish for International Trade = 61, Spanish

for K-12 Education = 62, Spanish for Translation = 63, Spanish Studies = 64, Speech-Language Pathology & Audiology = 65, Theology = 66, Visual Arts = 67, Visual Arts Education = 68, Wellness = 69, and Other = 70.

Demographic variables were coded as follows:

1. Gender: 1 = Male, 2 = Female
2. Ethnicity: 1 = American Indian and Alaskan Native, 2 = Asian, 3 = Black or African American, 4 = Hispanic, 5 = Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, 6 = White, 7 = Mixed, 8 = Other
3. Age: Self-reported numbers
4. Year of Study: 1 = Freshman, 2 = Sophomore, 3 = Junior, 4 = Senior, 5 = Other
5. Long Distance: 1 = Yes, 2 = No

Data Analysis

The design of this study is quantitative non-experimental descriptive using survey methodology. This design of the data gathering was done in such a way as to make correlational and predictive analysis possible. Quantitative data was gathered and therefore it was analyzed using SPSS 22. The data was analyzed using five statistical procedures which include: Descriptive Statistics, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (Pearson's *r*), Canonical Correlations, Independent Samples *t*-test, and one-way ANOVA. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the data in terms of gender, ethnicity, year of study, long distance relationship, age, and academic major. The Pearson's correlational test was used to test assumptions of the canonical correlations and provide a more detailed description of the sample. The Canonical correlations were used to determine if there were overall relationships between each of the main

variable groups: television viewing, dating, and academics. The independent samples *t*-test and ANOVA test was used to analyze the data in order to better describe the data.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

The analysis began with running the descriptive statistics on the demographic and other variables which can be found in Table 3. There were a total of 202 undergraduate and graduate students attending Andrews University in the Spring of 2015 that participated in this research study. The sample was comprised of 65 (32.2%) men and 137 (67.8%) women. The sample was ethnically diverse. White was the largest group with 71 (35.1%), followed by 35 (17.3%) Black or African American participants. Other groups included Hispanics with 33 (16.3%), Mixed with 30 (14.9%), Asians with 27 (13.4), and Other with 6 (3.0%). None of the participants listed themselves as Native American, Native Hawaiian, or Pacific Islander.

There were also a wide variety of majors represented (48 total) in the sample. Most of the majors represented had fewer than ten representatives within the sample. The four majors that had at least ten participants included Engineering (13), Psychology (12), Speech-Language Pathology & Audiology (12), and Nursing (11). Out of the 202 in the sample, 47 students did not indicate their major. In terms of class standing, there were 30 (14.9%) Freshman, 39 (19.3%) Sophomores, 42 (20.8%) Juniors, 54 (26.7%) Seniors, and 37 (18.3%) listed as Other.

Table 3

Demographics (N = 202)

Variables		Frequency	%
Gender			
	Male	65	32.2
	Female	137	67.8
Ethnicity			
	Asian	27	13.4
	Black or African American	35	17.3
	Hispanic	33	16.3
	White	71	35.1
	Mixed	30	14.9
	Other	6	3.0
	Total	202	100.0
Year of Study			
	Freshman	30	14.9
	Sophomore	39	19.3
	Junior	42	20.8
	Senior	54	26.7
	Other	37	18.3
	Total	202	100.0
Long Distance Relationship			
	Yes	81	40.1
	No	121	59.9

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Age

Variable	n	Mean	Median	Mode	Minimum	Maximum	Range	*SD*
Age	202	22.01	21	19	18	39	21	4.26

Television Viewing

On average, participants viewed about 1 hour and 19 minutes of television per day. Of the time reported, about 10 minutes were spent watching informational television (e.g. the news), about 42 minutes were spent viewing entertainment television, and 14 minutes were spent watching educational television. Participants also reported viewing almost one and a half movies per week. Further information on the television and movie viewing habits can be found in Table 5, Table 6, and Table 7.

There were also differences in the amount of television various groups watched. Men (M = 16.80, SD = 28.21) reported viewing more informational television than women (M = 7.62, SD = 16.62; $t(63.18) = 2.16$, $p < .05$). An ANOVA of major groupings found no differences. When specific majors were analyzed using an ANOVA, a difference was found between religion majors (n= 3, M = 0.00, SD = 0.00) and psychology majors (n= 9, M = 121.67, SD = 70.53; $F(18, 95) = 1.94$, $p < .03$). The religion students reported that they did not watch any television which does not seem likely especially since their mean for informational, entertainment, educational, and movie viewing is reported at greater than zero. Since the groups are so small, the above differences are only somewhat meaningful. A larger sample size is needed in order to get a more meaningful understanding of differences between academic majors in their television viewing habits.

Table 5

Television Viewing Frequencies (N = 174)

Type of Viewing	Time Spent (in Minutes)	Frequency	%
Total Viewing			
	0	33	19.0
	15	54	31.0
	90	53	30.5
	210	29	16.7
	330	2	1.1
	450	3	1.7
Informational			
	0	105	60.3
	15	59	33.9
	90	10	5.7
	210	0	0.0
	330	0	0.0
	450	0	0.0
Entertainment			
	0	73	42.0
	15	50	28.7
	90	36	20.7
	210	14	8.0
	330	1	0.6
	450	0	0.0
Educational			
	0	101	58.0
	15	56	32.2
	90	16	9.2
	210	1	0.6
	330	0	0.0
	450	0	0.0

Table 6

Movie Viewing Frequencies (N = 174)

Number of Movies/Week	Frequency	%
0	59	33.9
1.5	88	50.6
3.5	20	11.5
5.5	4	2.3
7.5	2	1.1
9.5	1	0.6

Table 7

Viewing Descriptives (N = 174)

	Total Viewing	Informational	Entertainment	Educational	Movies
Mean	78.62	10.26	41.72	14.31	1.428
Median	52.50	0.00	15.00	0.00	1.500
Mode	15	0	0	0	1.5
Std. Deviation	92.183	20.955	64.791	29.511	1.5429

Dating

Within dating, descriptive statistics were gathered on behavior, expectations, and well-being. On average, dating partners touched one another in the form of hugging, holding hands, and other general types of touch about nine times per day. Dating partners also kissed an average of nine times per day and interacted more intimately about one and a half times per week. The relatively large standard deviations give evidence that there was a wide range in the frequency of each of the behaviors. Further information on dating behaviors can be found in Table 8.

Dating expectations were measured on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being not important and 7 being extremely important. Found in Table 9, participants most valued spending time with their dating partners. Receiving gifts from one's dating partner had by far the lowest average score. There were also differences between men and women in what they value in a dating partner. An independent samples *t*-test found that men ($M = 5.09$, $SD = 1.33$) valued physical attractiveness more highly than women ($M = 4.49$, $SD = 1.47$; $t(162) = 2.39$, $p < .02$). Conversely, women ($M = 4.33$, $SD = 1.62$) valued receiving compliments more highly than men ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 1.71$; $t(162) = -2.98$, $p < .01$). Female participants ($M = 4.93$, $SD = 1.58$) also valued kind acts more than the male participants ($M = 4.17$, $SD = 1.65$; $t(162) = -2.73$, $p < .01$).

Dating well-being information can also be found in Table 9. Participants were fairly satisfied with their relationships with an average score of about 5.8 out of 7. The average relationship length was about one year and five months in which individuals spent an almost 18 hours per week with their dating partner.

Despite no differences being found between normal and long-distance relationships on behaviors and well-being, differences were found among dating expectations. An independent samples *t*-test found that participants in long-distance relationships valued receiving gifts ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 1.44$) more than those who reported that they were not in a long distance relationship ($M = 2.68$, $SD = 1.49$; $t(162) = 2.54$, $p < .02$). Long-distance partners also placed a higher value on receiving kind acts ($M = 5.06$, $SD = 1.38$) than those who did not report being in a long-distance relationship ($M = 4.47$, $SD = 1.76$; $t(161.5) = 2.40$, $p < .02$).

Table 8

Dating Behaviors (N = 174)

Variable	Mean	*SD*
Physical Touch	9.07	24.20
Kissing	8.93	24.99
More	1.60	3.51

Table 9

Dating Expectations & Well-being (N = 164)

Variable	Mean	*SD*	Minimum	Maximum
Attractiveness	4.66	1.46	1	7
Physical Contact	4.60	1.94	1	7
Spends Time	5.07	1.68	1	7
Gifts	2.93	1.50	1	7
Compliments	4.09	1.68	1	7
Kind Acts	4.72	1.63	1	7
Satisfied	5.77	1.59	1	7
Length	16.99	17.68	0.5	75
Time Together	17.79	26.28	0	168

Academics

Within academics, the average participant had a GPA of 3.50. They had skipped class without a doctor's note once in the past month, procrastinated sometimes (M = 3.25, SD = 1.49), and cheated on rare occasion (M = 0.44, SD = 0.86). Participants spent over three hours doing homework (M = 200.96, SD = 114.63) and over three hours studying (M = 191.73, SD = 130.01) every day. More detailed information on academic behaviors can be found below in Table 10. The only academic differences that were found were in the amount of time participants studied. After grouping the majors, only a difference between business and allied health existed in the

amount of time spent studying which was determined using an ANOVA. Allied health students (n = 38, M = 263.68.00, SD = 141.43) studied significantly more than business students (n = 17, M = 127.06, SD = 66.69; $F(10, 136) = 2.68$, $p < .02$).

Table 10

Academic Behaviors Descriptives (N = 156)

Variable	Mean	*SD*	Minimum	Maximum
Skipped	.94	1.35	0	6
Procrastinate	3.25	1.49	0	6
Cheat	.44	.86	0	6
Homework Time	200.96	114.63	0	570
Study Time	191.73	130.01	0	570

Hypothesis Testing

There were three research questions divided into ten hypotheses that guided this study. These hypotheses were tested using Canonical correlation analyses.

Television Viewing and Dating

This research question asked if there was a relationship between television viewing and dating (behavior, expectations, and relationship well-being). The two hypotheses that fell under this research question predicted that television viewing would be positively related to expectations (attractive, physical contact, spends time, gifts, compliments, and kind acts) and behaviors (general touch, kissing, and more intimate) while simultaneously being inversely related to relationship well-being (time spent together, relationship satisfaction, and relationship length). Zero-order correlation coefficients between television viewing and dating can be found in Table 11. These correlations ranged from .001 to .209. Most of these relationships were not

Table 11

Correlation Matrix for Television Viewing and Dating (N = 164)

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Total Time	.298**	.553**	.289**	.176*	-.008	.011	.028	.034	.165*	.063	.027	.021	.001	-.061	-.106	.009
2. Informational	1	.157*	.262**	.189*	-.063	-.066	-.042	.082	.116	-.045	.021	.054	-.056	-.100	-.071	-.016
3. Entertainment		1	.119	.062	.097	.085	-.053	-.111	.187*	.079	.046	.106	.080	.111	-.209**	-.136
4. Educational			1	.129	-.045	-.035	-.030	.088	-.009	.090	-.011	.016	-.016	-.086	-.079	.072
5. Movies				1	.030	-.033	.017	.036	.072	.036	-.025	.038	.064	-.035	-.062	-.033
6. Actual Contact					1	.853**	.132	.379**	.232**	.260**	.214**	.051	.061	.141	.123	.057
7. Kiss						1	.194*	.365**	.201**	.255**	.170*	.021	.075	.118	.118	.008
8. More Intimate							1	.174*	.019	.131	.170*	-.073	.012	-.045	.188*	-.040
9. Time Spent Together								1	.075	.051	.039	-.038	.010	-.022	.183*	.178*
10. Attractive									1	.434**	.307**	.176*	.271**	.197*	.091	-.071
11. Physical Contact										1	.482**	.202**	.267**	.249**	.201**	-.048
12. Spending Time											1	.160*	.236**	.277**	.166*	.007
13. Gifts												1	.505**	.473**	.045	.019
14. Compliments													1	.510**	.070	-.019
15. Kind Acts														1	.080	.042
16. Satisfied															1	.210**
17. Relationship Length																1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

statistically significant ($p > .05$). Correlations between television viewing types ranged from .062 to .553 (most were significant at $p < .05$), while correlations between dating variables ranged from .001 to .853 (most were not significant at $p > .05$).

Television viewing. As was expected, there were relationships between the different types of television viewing. Total viewing was related to the viewing of informational ($r_{(174)} = .298$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 8.9\%$), entertainment ($r_{(174)} = .553$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 30.6\%$), and educational ($r_{(174)} = .289$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 8.4\%$) programs as well as movies ($r_{(174)} = .176$, $p < .03$, $r^2 = 3.1\%$). The remaining correlations were found between informational viewing and entertainment ($r_{(174)} = .157$, $p < .04$, $r^2 = 2.5\%$), educational ($r_{(174)} = .262$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 6.9\%$), and movies ($r_{(174)} = .189$, $p < .02$, $r^2 = 3.6\%$). These and other correlations can be found in Table 11.

Dating behaviors. A number of significant correlations were found between the dating behavior variables. Frequency of physical touch was strongly related to kissing frequency ($r_{(174)} = .853$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 72.8\%$). Finally, kissing frequency was related to frequency of more intimate behaviors ($r_{(174)} = .194$, $p < .02$, $r^2 = 3.8\%$). See Table 11 for further information.

Dating expectations. There were also significant relationships found between the dating expectation variables. While most were found to be weak, all the variables were found to be significantly related. There were five moderate correlations that will be highlighted while the remaining can be found in Table 11. Importance of physical contact was positively related with both importance of physical attractiveness ($r_{(164)} = .434$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 18.8\%$) and importance of spending time ($r_{(164)} = .482$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 23.2\%$). The remaining three moderate correlations form a triangle. Importance of receiving compliments is related to receiving gifts ($r_{(164)} = .505$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 25.5\%$). Receiving gifts is related to importance of receiving kind acts ($r_{(164)} =$

.473, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 22.4\%$). Lastly, receiving kind acts is related to compliments ($r_{(164)} = .510$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 26.0\%$).

Dating behaviors, expectations and well-being. Additionally, many weak yet significant correlations were found between dating behaviors, dating expectations, and dating well-being. The frequency of physical touch was related to importance of attractiveness ($r_{(164)} = .232$, $p < .01$, $r^2 = 5.4\%$), importance of physical contact ($r_{(164)} = .260$, $p < .01$, $r^2 = 6.8\%$), and importance of spending time together ($r_{(164)} = .214$, $p < .01$, $r^2 = 4.6\%$). The frequency of kissing was also related to these three: attractiveness ($r_{(164)} = .201$, $p < .02$, $r^2 = 4.0\%$), physical contact ($r_{(164)} = .255$, $p < .01$, $r^2 = 6.5\%$), and time ($r_{(164)} = .170$, $p < .04$, $r^2 = 2.9\%$). More intimate behaviors were only correlated with time ($r_{(164)} = .434$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 18.8\%$).

The amount of time dating partners spent with each other was weakly correlated with the frequency of general physical touch ($r_{(174)} = .379$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 14.4\%$), kissing ($r_{(174)} = .365$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 13.3\%$), more intimate behaviors ($r_{(174)} = .174$, $p < .03$, $r^2 = 3.0\%$), satisfaction ($r_{(164)} = .183$, $p < .02$, $r^2 = 3.3\%$), and relationship length ($r_{(164)} = .178$, $p < .03$, $r^2 = 3.2\%$). In addition to being related to time spent together, satisfaction was found to be correlated with importance of physical contact ($r_{(164)} = .201$, $p < .02$, $r^2 = 4.0\%$), importance of spending time together ($r_{(164)} = .166$, $p < .04$, $r^2 = 2.8\%$), and frequency of intimate behaviors ($r_{(164)} = .188$, $p < .02$, $r^2 = 3.5\%$). Also, actual time spent together was the only variable significantly correlated with the length of the current dating relationship ($r_{(164)} = .178$, $p < .03$, $r^2 = 3.2\%$). See Table 11 for further information.

Canonical analysis results. The results of the canonical correlational analysis between the television viewing variables and the dating variables found none of the canonical loadings to

be statistically significant ($p \geq .523$). As such, this analysis failed to support the first and second hypotheses. These results suggest that television viewing is not related to dating expectations, dating behaviors, or relationship well-being.

Television Viewing and Academics

The second research question asked whether or not there was a relationship between television viewing and academics (GPA, positive academic behaviors, and negative academic behaviors). The third and fourth hypotheses fit under this section and predicted that television viewing (total viewing, informational, entertainment, educational, and movies) would be positively correlated with negative academic behaviors while also being inversely related to GPA and positive academic behaviors (homework and study time). Bivariate correlation coefficients between television viewing and academics can be found in Table 12 and ranged from .003 to .296. The majority of these correlations were not statistically significant ($p > .05$). Correlations between television viewing types ranged from .062 to .553 and most were significant at $p < .05$. The relationships between the academic variables ranged from .009 to .370 of which about half were statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Academics. A number of weak yet significant correlations were found between the academics variables. GPA was inversely related to skipping ($r_{(153)} = -.237$, $p < .01$, $r^2 = 5.6\%$) and procrastinating ($r_{(153)} = -.191$, $p < .02$, $r^2 = 3.6\%$). Skipping class without a doctor's note was correlated with procrastinating ($r_{(156)} = .370$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 13.7\%$) and cheating ($r_{(156)} = .244$, $p < .01$, $r^2 = 6.0\%$). Additionally, cheating was correlated with procrastinating ($r_{(156)} = .197$, $p < .02$, $r^2 = 3.9\%$) and inversely related to study time ($r_{(156)} = -.176$, $p < .03$, $r^2 = 3.1\%$).

Table 12

Correlation Matrix for Television Viewing and Academics (N = 153)

	Total Time	Informational	Entertainment	Educational	Movies	GPA	Skipped	Procrastinate	Cheat	Homework Time	Study Time
Total Time	1	.298**	.553**	.289**	.176*	-.117	.240**	.296**	.058	-.136	-.143
Informational		1	.157*	.262**	.189*	-.128	-.139	.015	-.152	-.006	.057
Entertainment			1	.119	.062	-.047	.267**	.198*	.087	-.037	-.052
Educational				1	.129	-.098	.170*	.031	.055	.063	-.005
Movies					1	-.177*	-.029	-.038	.147	-.073	-.003
GPA						1	-.237**	-.191*	-.018	-.066	-.080
Skipped							1	.370**	.244**	-.028	-.135
Procrastinate								1	.197*	.044	-.124
Cheat									1	.009	-.176*
Homework Time										1	.298**
Study Time											1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

There was also a relationship between homework and study time ($r_{(156)} = .298$, $p < .001$, $r^2 = 8.9\%$).

Canonical analysis results. The results of the canonical correlation analysis between television viewing and academics can be found in Table 13. Only the first function was significant ($p < .01$) with a correlation of .420 which explained about 18% of the variance. The types of television viewing at least moderately related to the canonical variate were total viewing and entertainment viewing. Among the academic variables, skipping class and procrastinating were at least moderately related to the canonical variate. Therefore, the canonical variate indicates that participants who watch less total (-.707) and entertainment television (-.581) skip class (-.907) and procrastinate (-.592) less frequently. This data suggests that watching television may increase procrastination and skipping class in university students.

Table 13

Canonical Correlation Analysis for Television Viewing and Academics (N=153)

	Canonical Loading 1	
Variables	Correlations	Coefficients
Set 1		
Total Viewing	-.707	-.694
Informational Viewing	.297	.681
Entertainment Viewing	-.581	-.347
Educational Viewing	-.334	-.316
Movies	.003	.078
Set 2		
GPA	.166	-.051
Skipped Class	-.907	-.758
Procrastinated	-.592	-.297
Cheated	-.385	-.126
Homework Time	.253	.163
Study Time	.364	.150
Canonical Correlation	.420	
% of Variance	.176	
Wilk's	.678	
F	1.942	
df	30	
p	.002	

Dating and Academics

The third research question asked whether or not a correlation would exist between dating (behavior, expectations, and relationship well-being) and academics (GPA, positive academic behaviors, and negative academic behaviors). Hypotheses 5 through 10 fell under this research question. First, it was predicted that dating behaviors (general touch, kissing, and more intimate) and dating expectations (attractive, physical contact, spends time, gifts, compliments, and kind acts) would be inversely correlated with GPA and positive academic behaviors (homework time and study time). Second, it was predicted that dating behaviors and dating expectations would be positively correlated with negative academic behaviors (procrastinating, skipping, and cheating). Third, it was predicted that dating well-being (time spent together, satisfaction, and relationship length) would be positively correlated with GPA and positive academic behaviors while simultaneously being inversely related to negative academic behaviors. Pearson correlation coefficients between dating and academics can be found in Table 14. These correlations ranged from .003 to .225. Almost all of these relationships were not statistically significant ($p > .05$). Correlations between dating variables ranged from .001 to .853 (most were not significant at $p > .05$) while the relationships between the academic variables ranged from .009 to .370 (about half were statistically significant at $p < .05$).

The canonical correlation analysis found that none of the canonical loadings were statistically significant ($p \geq .312$). Therefore, hypotheses 5 through 10 were not supported by this data. The results suggest that dating and academics are unrelated.

Table 14

Correlation Matrix for Dating and Academics (N = 153)

	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.
1. Contact	.853**	.132	.232**	.260**	.214**	.051	.061	.141	.379**	.123	.057	.046	.018	-.087	.126	.010	-.021
2. Kiss	1	.194*	.201**	.255**	.170*	.021	.075	.118	.365**	.118	.008	.021	.019	-.097	.066	.117	.003
3. More Intimate		1	.019	.131	.170*	-.073	.012	-.045	.174*	.188*	-.040	.033	.109	.093	.111	-.092	-.027
4. Attractive			1	.434**	.307**	.176*	.271**	.197*	.075	.091	-.071	-.020	.074	.105	.063	-.019	.129
5. Physical Contact				1	.482**	.202**	.267**	.249**	.051	.201**	-.048	-.056	.057	-.103	.023	-.115	-.071
6. Spending Time					1	.160*	.236**	.277**	.039	.166*	.007	-.059	.111	-.004	.078	-.008	.042
7. Gifts						1	.505**	.473**	-.038	.045	.019	-.017	.036	-.036	.119	.073	.088
8. Compliments							1	.510**	.010	.070	-.019	-.064	.053	-.029	.143	.052	.075
9. Kind Acts								1	-.022	.080	.042	.003	.141	.017	.225**	.016	.003
10. Time Spent Together									1	.183*	.178*	.010	.034	-.048	.080	.024	-.102
11. Satisfied										1	.210**	.137	.066	-.127	-.020	-.004	.110
12. Length											1	.103	.102	-.014	.086	-.104	-.099
13. GPA												1	-.237**	-.191*	-.018	-.066	-.080
14. Skipped													1	.370**	.244**	-.028	-.135
15. Procrastinate														1	.197*	.044	-.124
16. Cheat															1	.009	-.176*
17. Homework Time																1	.298**
18. Study Time																	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Summary of Major Findings

- With use of a canonical correlational analysis, the data suggests that television viewing and dating are not related.
- A second canonical correlational analysis revealed a significant correlation between television viewing and academics.
    - Individuals who watched less total and entertainment television also tended to procrastinate and skip class less often.
- The third canonical correlational analysis suggested that dating and academics were unrelated.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Purpose of the Study

The average American adult spends a significant portion of his/her day watching television and is unaware of how his/her viewing habits may be related to other behaviors. Important areas of one's life, like romantic relationships and academics, may be impacted by the type of programming and time spent viewing television. The purpose of this study was to determine whether relationships existed between television viewing, dating, and academics in young adults. Findings from this research may be helpful in understanding romantic interactions and values as well as the academics of young people in relation to their television media habits.

Descriptive Statistics

Television Viewing

While the U.S. Department of Labor (2014) reports that the average adult watches about 2.8 hours of television a day, the average amount in this sample was 1.3 hours per day. Most of this time is reportedly spent watching entertainment programs or movies. Comparatively, on average very little time was spent viewing informational or educational programming. Since the sample for this study consisted entirely of university students, the fact that they reported watching less than half the average amount of time watching television seems reasonable. This is especially so considering the average participant spent about three and a third hours doing

homework and three and a sixth hours studying each day. If their self-reporting was close to reality, participants are academically engaged to the point of having less available time to watch television. In terms of the academic variables, students also reported academically procrastinating frequently, and even skipping class and cheating on rare occasion.

Notable group differences were also made apparent upon completing various analyses. Men watched significantly more informational television than women did. Informational television included programming such as the news. Women watched almost eight minutes while men watched almost seventeen minutes. This seems to indicate that the male participants were more interested in current events and are likely more informed about them compared to their female counterparts.

Some differences between the academic majors were found in how much television they viewed. Unfortunately, a key weakness in these findings is that there were only three religion majors and three computers and information majors that responded to this survey. Both of these groups were involved in the differences and if removed, there are no other differences between the academic majors. A larger overall sample with greater numbers of participants in each of the academic majors would be ideal.

Dating

Participants reported touching, kissing, and acting intimately with their dating partner very frequently (9 times per day, 9 times per day, and 1.5 times per week respectively) but the large standard deviations indicate a wide variety in these behaviors. Perhaps the most surprising find was the average length of the dating relationship was 17 months. This indicates that the average participant has maintained their relationship for a relatively long time and seems committed to their current relationship. This potential maturity or seriousness about one's

committed relationship is less surprising when the religious beliefs of the university are taken into account. Young adults in the Seventh-day Adventist (SDA) faith are expected to wait until marriage to engage in sexual activities which may encourage them to marry at a younger age than the general population. This may lead them to become more committed to their romantic relationships at a younger age, hence a 17 month average relationship length. Despite the expectation to wait for marriage, however, the average participant reported engaging in some sort of more intimate relations (than kissing) one and a half times per week. The way the question was worded left the activities reported up to interpretation; however, it seems likely that a significant portion of respondents have chosen to disregard this standard. Of course, some respondents may not have identified as SDA which further confuses this interpretation.

Of the dating expectations, spending time with one's dating partner was the most important. This seems logical, since liking someone seems somewhat synonymous with wanting to spend time with them. Gifts were rated as by far the least important. Although Seventh-day Adventists are somewhat similar to the culture around them, they are taught that materialism should be cast aside for values such as generosity. This may explain why receiving gifts was far less important than the other expectations. It would be interesting to compare this sample with one taken from a secular university.

Men and women were found to vary on the importance of a few of the expectations. Men valued attractiveness more highly in their dating partner than women. Women valued receiving compliments and kind acts from their dating partner more than men. Previous research by the author of the current study found different results. The previous study found the only difference between men and women in their dating expectations was on the importance of receiving gifts. Women rated this as significantly more important than men (Milmine, 2013). The explanation

for the variance between these research studies is unclear. Since the previous study did not include a measure of the importance of kind acts, it is possible that the item for gifts also measured kind acts in some way. This might explain why the importance of gifts was significantly different between men and women in the previous study, while importance of kind acts was significantly different (and gifts was not) in the current study. Further investigation is needed to understand the cause of this difference as well as the differences in expectations between men and women in a dating relationship.

Differences between individuals in short and long-distance relationships were also found within the dating expectations. The differences occurred in receiving gifts and receiving kind acts from one's dating partner. In both cases, those in long-distance relationships placed higher value on these areas. These findings seem reasonable as individuals in long-distance relationships would have less time together and therefore unable to enjoy attractiveness and physical contact as much as those in short-distance relationships. Interestingly, those in long-distance relationships did not value spending time with their dating partner more than those in short-distance relationships. One possible explanation is that participants in long-distance relationships experience a conflict of highly valuing time with their dating partner while simultaneously devaluing it to make the distance seem like less of an issue.

Surprisingly, there were no differences between those in normal and those in long-distance relationships in how frequently they reported dating behaviors and dating well-being. This suggests that individuals in long-distance relationships estimated their behaviors based on the time they do spend with their dating partner. Since there were no differences in dating well-being between these normal and long-distance relationships, it seems reasonable to assume that long-distance relationships can be equally as satisfying at least for a limited amount of time.

Academics

The students in this sample had a relatively high GPA with an average of 3.50. Without further information, it is difficult to say whether this is due to grade inflation, individuals with higher GPAs participating at a higher frequency than those with low GPAs, or students recognizing how much more they are paying to go to school and therefore work harder for good grades. While all three (and possibly others) could be factors in why the average was so high, the most likely scenario is that individuals with better GPAs were more likely to participate. Since recruitment for this study was done via email, it seems reasonable to assume that more studious students check their emails at a greater frequency. It also seems reasonable to assume that invested students are more likely to involve themselves in someone else's research because they are curious about and/or recognize the importance of academic research.

Participants admitted to some negative academic behaviors as well as a large amount of time engaging in positive academic behaviors. On average, participants had skipped class once in the past month without a doctor's note, admitted to procrastinating sometimes, and even the rare incidence of academic dishonesty. The relatively high standard deviations compared to the low mean scores in both skipping class and cheating indicate that many of the students reported never skipping and never cheating while others reported engaging in these behaviors frequently. The students also reported spending almost three and a half hours doing homework and over three hours studying every day. If this is accurate, then students are likely spending more than eight hours per day in academic activities including going to class. Differences between academic majors found were on how much time they spent studying. When the majors were placed into groups, allied health students studied more than business students. Health related

professions are notoriously challenging and require a lot of memorization which is likely why these students reported studying more than others.

Television Viewing and Dating

This research question asked if there was a correlation between television viewing and dating. It was hypothesized that increased television viewing would be related to an increased level of expectations and behaviors because of the unrealistic characters and high frequency of physical interactions. Relationship well-being was hypothesized to fall because individuals may feel unsatisfied that their real-life relationships do not seem as exciting or glamorous as the ones they see on television.

Television Viewing

Relationships between the television viewing variables were expected; especially between total viewing and the other variables. The most unanticipated finding was the lack of relationship between entertainment viewing and movies. It would seem reasonable that individuals who enjoy watching movies would also enjoy watching television shows and that they would both be viewed by the same individuals as a form of entertainment. This is not the case. An investigation into why these two are not correlated may reveal interesting results.

Dating Behaviors

Unsurprisingly, there were many interrelationships between the physical dating behaviors. Spending more time together was related to a higher frequency of physical touch, kissing, and intimate behaviors. Kissing frequency was related to both physical touch and intimate interaction frequency. Interestingly, the frequency of physical touch and intimate interactions were not related. This means that hand-holding, hugging, and other non-intimate

touching appear to be unrelated to intimate behavior. However, since both physical touch and intimate behavior are related to kissing, there seems to be a progression or path that a dating relationship follows that ends in intimate behaviors. It can also be concluded that spending more time together may lead to an increase in all types of physical behaviors.

Dating Expectations

Correlational analyses were used to determine the relationships between the dating expectations variables. All the variables were at least weakly related with one another which seems reasonable. There were five moderate correlations that are worth further discussion. The importance of physical contact was moderately related to both importance of physical attractiveness and importance of spending time together. To be able to engage in a higher frequency of physical contact, more time would be necessary making this correlation rational. The more interesting of the two, spending time with attractiveness, suggests that having a more physically attractive dating partner encourages a partner to want to spend more time with them; presumably admiring their attractiveness. Of course, this could indicate that those who place a higher value on time together subsequently wish to make said time more visibly desirable; however, the first course seems more likely.

The remaining three moderate correlations within the dating expectations form somewhat of a triangle as all are moderately related with one another. These variables include receiving gifts, receiving kind acts, and receiving compliments. Since each of these variables has its main focus on receiving something, it is reasonable to conclude that these interrelated expectations represent an individual who desires to be looked after and provided with reinforcement regarding their value as a person or dating partner.

Dating Behaviors, Expectations, and Well-being

Pearson's correlations also revealed relationships between dating behaviors, expectations, and well-being. Earlier, it was found that importance of physical contact and importance of attractiveness were related to importance of spending time together. This analysis found that these variables were each related to the actual frequency of physical touch. The relationship between frequency of touch and both importance of time and importance of touch seems almost inevitable. Since importance of attractiveness and importance of physical contact are related, it seems logical that the frequency of physical touch would also be related (to importance of attractiveness). Kissing frequency was also related to importance of physical attractiveness. It does not appear to be a leap to suggest that those who value physical attractiveness more highly have more physically attractive partners. If this is the case, it could therefore be concluded that individuals deemed physically attractive tend to engage in more physical touch and kissing behaviors within their dating relationships.

The amount of time spent with one's dating partner was related to all the physical behaviors as well as satisfaction and relationship length. This may indicate that spending more time together leads to more physical behaviors or that more time together is necessary for those who intend to act out these behaviors. Also, it is reasonable to believe that spending time with someone who is important would increase the satisfaction that exists in the relationship and therefore would lead to a longer relationship. Satisfaction was also related to the importance of both physical contact and spending time together as well as the frequency of intimate behaviors. These relationships were more surprising because they indicate that people who have certain dating expectations (but may not actually have those expectations met) also tend to be more satisfied. The importance of time and touch themselves may be more important to those who

have a greater desire for a romantic relationship and are therefore more satisfied by them. Especially interesting considering the data was gathered on a religious campus that promotes abstinence before marriage was the finding that satisfaction was related to the frequency of more intimate behaviors. There two apparent explanations for this relationship. One is that individuals may not be engaging in such behaviors within a relationship that they were not satisfied with. The second is that not engaging in intimate behaviors within a dating relationship may cause a primal dissonance in the mind, subconsciously influencing individuals to indicate a lower satisfaction with their relationship.

Canonical Results

The data revealed that there was almost no evidence for a relationship between television viewing and dating. Despite a few weak bivariate correlations, the canonical correlation analysis was not significant. This means that television viewing and dating behaviors, expectations, and well-being do not seem to be related. The findings may suggest one or a combination of the following conclusions: (a) television does not portray an unrealistic amount of physical behavior between individuals in romantic relationships, (b) the participants were viewing other kinds of entertainment television (other than dating programming or programming that shows unrealistic amounts of physical behaviors between dating partners), (c) the participants were uninfluenced by the amount of physical behavior they viewed, or (d) the participants were unable to engage in the physical behaviors at the frequency they viewed them for some other reason. Findings also suggest that despite watching unrealistic characters on television, individual's expectations of their dating partner are not significantly affected.

There are also some possible explanations for the failure to find a significant relationship between television viewing and dating well-being. First, individuals may be spending some, or

all of their viewing time, watching television with their dating partner. Thus, the time they spend watching television would have a smaller displacement effect on the amount of time remaining to spend with their dating partner. A second possibility is that since participants are already viewing significantly less than the national average, they are left with more time to spend with their romantic partner. Individuals may also be sacrificing other activities in order to not allow their television viewing habits to impact the time they spend with their dating partner. Because of this, relationship satisfaction and relationship length may be unaffected by the amount of time these participants spend watching television. In the future, gathering data using further subdivision of the entertainment genre may reveal a significant canonical analysis because it had the largest (albeit very weak) bivariate correlation with several other variables such as the attractiveness expectation and relationship satisfaction. For example, although watching sports would be considered entertainment, it may be weakening the overall correlation.

These findings support certain prior research studies. The current study seems to add to the findings of Zurbriggen and Morgan (2006) who argue that the relationship between television viewing and sexual activity in young adults has been gradually weakening. This study also supports previous research which failed to find a relationship between television viewing and various dating expectations, relationship satisfaction, and relationship length (Milmine, 2013). Perhaps further division of the entertainment variable would lead to greater support of the previous research.

This study simultaneously disagrees with other earlier studies. First, research found a significant relationship between viewing romantic/sexually themed television and kissing frequency which was not found in this study (Milmine, 2013). Research by Ward (2002) also suggests that frequent viewing of entertainment programming (soap operas) is related to beliefs

that sex is recreational and commonplace. If this is true, this study has failed to find that these attitudes translate into more frequent sexual interactions. The current study also does not support multiple studies that found frequent television viewing related to more sexual partners and a greater number of sexual experiences (Collins et al., 2011; Ward, 2002; Ward & Friedman, 2006). These studies did, however, look specifically at sexually themed television while the current study simply gathered data on entertainment programming which includes a wider variety of content. The current study also did not support other research that indicated dissatisfaction may be the result of viewing unrealistic romantic relationships on television (Punyanunt-Carter, 2006).

Television Viewing and Academics

The second research question asked whether or not there was a relationship between television viewing and academics. Television viewing was hypothesized to have an inverse relationship with GPA and positive academic behavior and a positive relationship with negative academic behavior. Following the displacement hypothesis, watching more television was thought to reduce time spent in homework and study behaviors and therefore a reduction in GPA. In turn, these students would find negative academic behaviors more attractive in order to maintain their academic performance.

Academics

The correlations between the academic variables produced some noteworthy findings. Skipping class was positively related to procrastinating and cheating and inversely related to GPA. Procrastinating was weakly related to cheating. It seems reasonable that individuals who procrastinate more frequently are forced to skip class in order to finish their work. Also logical

is that those who skip class and fall behind are more likely to feel the need to cheat in order to receive a more desirable grade. Strangely, GPA was unrelated to the time spent doing homework or studying. One explanation is that participants did not accurately report the amount of time they spend on these activities. Another possibility is that the amount of time required to obtain a good GPA depends on the individual's academic major. Only partial support for this explanation exists as few differences between majors were found. Both nursing and medical lab science majors reported studying significantly more than business administration students and elementary education students. No differences were found on the amount of time spent doing homework.

Canonical Results

The canonical correlation found relationships between television viewing and academics; particularly in television viewing and some negative academic behaviors. The analysis found that watching more hours of total television and entertainment television was related to an increase in skipping class and procrastination. There are several possible explanations for this relationship. Students who watch more television may be spending their time watching television instead of working on homework and therefore procrastinate more than their peers who view less. Regarding skipping class, students might feel the need to skip in order to catch up with homework, study, or sleep in which they have gotten behind as a result of their viewing habits. Students may also skip class to watch television or miss class because they lost track of time watching something.

Interestingly, while increased television viewing is related to procrastinating, or putting off doing homework, it is not significantly related to the amount of time spent doing homework. This suggests that while homework is put on hold, it does eventually get done. If watching more

television is related to procrastination but not the total time spent doing homework, it is reasonable to assume that other behavior is being sacrificed in order to still spend the adequate time to get the homework done. This may also provide further evidence that sleep is being sacrificed as students are trying to keep up, which in turn increases their chances of missing class due to oversleeping or exhaustion.

Equally important are those relationships that were expected but were not found. One of such relationships was that between GPA and television viewing. Despite television viewing being related to procrastinating and skipping, it was not found to be related to GPA. It may be that since the participants were watching significantly fewer hours of television than the average American that they were not significantly impacted by their viewing habits. Another explanation is that these individuals may not be reporting their GPAs as honestly as those who watched less television. No matter the explanation for the lack of relationship, these findings are not supported by previous research which has found weak negative relationships between watching television and GPA (Beentjes & van der Voort, 1988; Comstock & Scharrer, 1999). Other studies find this weak relationship disappears when SES is controlled for (Gaddy, 1986; Gortmaker, Salter, Walker, & Dietz, 1990; Ritchie, Price, & Roberts, 1987). Since the university is expensive to attend, it may be that SES has been somewhat unintentionally controlled for in this sample which would bring these results into agreement with a number of previous studies.

Also worth discussing is the lack of evidence for relationship between television viewing and time spent doing homework and studying. These findings do not support the displacement hypothesis which forecasts that time spent in positive academic behaviors will be replaced by television viewing time as the time spent watching television increases (Hagborg, 1995; Hornik, 1981; Potter, 1987). The failure to find a significant relationship in this case may be the result of

other factors. Since the average viewing time was much lower than the American average, it may be that not enough time is displaced to significantly reduce the time spent in positive academic behaviors. Other behaviors like sleep, social activities, or exercise may instead be sacrificed. Pribis, Burtnack, McKenzie, & Thayer (2010) found a trend of declining fitness in both male and female students (from 1996-2008) which may support the idea that exercise is one area students are sacrificing. Another possible explanation is that some individuals attempt to do homework or study while simultaneously watching television.

Dating and Academics

The goal of the third research question was to determine if a correlation existed between dating and academics. Hypotheses predicted increased dating behaviors and expectations would be related to lower GPA and less time spent in positive academic behavior, increased dating behaviors, and expectations would be related to more frequent negative academic behavior, and high dating well-being would be related to high GPA, frequent positive academic behaviors, and infrequent negative academic behaviors. Increased dating behaviors and expectations were thought to be related to poor academics because of the individual placing a greater importance on dating rather than academics. Well-being was thought to be related to strong academics because the individual would feel fulfilled and satisfied with the dating aspect of their life and therefore retain more time and energy to put into academic pursuits.

The data in this study did not support these hypotheses as the canonical correlation was not significant. This means that dating behaviors, expectations, and well-being do not seem to be related to GPA, positive academic behaviors, and negative academic behaviors. What the data suggests is that neither the frequency of physical behaviors in the relationship, the level of expectations, nor the relationship well-being seems to have any impact on how one performs

academically. Also, GPA and academic behavior do not seem to influence an individual's dating behaviors, expectations, nor their relationship well-being.

This study took a new perspective on dating and academics and therefore it is somewhat difficult to make comparisons to previous research. However, this study deviates from previous findings in that this study found neither positive nor negative results. In other words, this study suggests that dating is neither improving nor harming academics and vice versa. Previous research has found the frequency of dating in middle and high-school aged adolescents to be inversely related to their academic performance (Orpinas et al., 2013; Quatman et al., 2001). Other research has found less definitive answers and submits that the impact of dating on academics depends on both the individual and their dating partner (Stefan, 2006). It is possible that the current study supports Stefan's (2006) conclusion as some individuals are impacted positively and others negatively leading to non-significant findings.

Limitations & Weaknesses of the Study

This study had a number of limitations and weaknesses that require mentioning. First, it is important to note that this study was neither a comprehensive nor exhaustive treatment of the relationship between television viewing, dating behavior, and academics. Second, the generalizability of this study is limited by its sample; it utilized a sample of convenience from students attending a private university in southern Michigan. Third, the items on the instrument were self-report. Response bias may have skewed data especially for items which asked participants to indicate undesirable behaviors or qualities. Fourth, the time for completing the study was limited based on the need for the completion of the degree of the primary researcher. This was especially relevant when collecting the data, which may have limited the sample size. Finally, the researcher made an error when converting the survey to its online version which did

not allow participants to indicate that they had never changed their major. This mistake likely reduced any differences or relationships that involved this variable. Finally, the late adoption of the three variable grouping system and comparison led to various challenges and a well-being group might have been more fully developed.

Suggestions for Future Research

Throughout the course of this research study, the need for adjustments, changes, and additions have been noted. Although this study helps to answer many of the questions to which it set out, much has been learned that would contribute to future attempts. As such, further research is necessary to better understand this data and provide clearer answers to the questions to which this study set out.

First and foremost, it would be of great benefit to use a larger and more diverse sample from which to gather data. Future research should expand to multiple universities and even beyond the university setting if possible in order to better represent the young adult population. Another major change for future research would be the subdivision of the entertainment television viewing variable. The reason for this is the vast array of types of entertainment television that range from sporting events to soap operas. A subdivided entertainment viewing variable would help to uncover stronger relationships between television viewing and some of the other variables. This way, researchers would be able to determine which types of entertainment television were related to specific dating expectations, dating behaviors, academic performance, academic behaviors, as well as the other variables.

Future research should also include a variety of other additions. A variable for socioeconomic status should be added to help determine whether television's relationships remain after controlling for it. Other variables that should be investigated in relation to

television viewing are violence and aggression in dating relationships, parasocial relationships, and therapeutic benefits. Increasing the number of dating expectations by adding variables such as intelligence, emotional stability, empathy, impulsiveness, and risk-taking may provide a greater understanding of what young adults value in their dating relationships. Researchers may also find it valuable to add actual measures of how individuals rate their dating partner across these expectations. In the direction of educational psychology, researchers may find it helpful to investigate the positive influences or uses of television in the educational setting. Popular television shows and movies could provide useful examples of real life situations that can be used as examples or to generate questions and discussions about a plethora of topics. Would the use of these television programs enhance students' learning or help make knowledge more applicable? This and other positive uses for television beg further investigation.

Conclusion

Although many of the hypotheses were not supported by the data and many of the relationships discovered were weak, this study was important to help grow the understanding of how one of the most powerful and influential mediums in the United States impacts two of the most central parts of the young adult's life: romantic relationships and academics (Bilandzic, 2006; Cheever, 2010). The accessibility and amount of television content should raise questions about the influence it has, especially in young adult populations as they admit to using it frequently and using it as a source of information (Ward, 2004; Wood et al., 2002; Zurbriggen, & Morgan, 2006). Despite the need for further research, the amount of study dedicated to television viewing has declined in recent decades. What has been done has focused mainly on children.

This study has helped to create new information on how television, dating, and academics relate to one another. Also, this study revealed information on the differences between men and women in terms of dating expectations and television viewing habits, how dating expectations, behaviors, and well-being related to themselves and each other, and how academic behaviors are interrelated. Although the results are not particularly conclusive, they call for further study and bring attention to the importance of these areas in future research.

APPENDIX A

IRB APPROVAL

Andrews University
Office of Research & Creative Scholarship

January 30, 2015

Michael Milmine
Tel:
Email:

RE: APPLICATION FOR APPROVAL OF RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS
IRB Protocol #: 14-139 **Application Type:** Original **Dept.:** Graduate Psychology & Counseling
Review Category: Expedited **Action Taken:** Approved **Advisor:** Nadia Nosworthy
Title: Television viewing, dating behavior, and academics in young adults.

This letter is to advise you that the Institutional Review Board (IRB) has reviewed and approved your IRB application of research involving human subjects entitled: *"Television viewing, dating behavior, and academics in young adults"* IRB protocol number 14-139 under Expedited category. This approval is valid until January 30, 2016. If your research is not completed by the end of this period you must apply for an extension at least four weeks prior to the expiration date. We ask that you inform IRB whenever you complete your research. Please reference the protocol number in future correspondence regarding this study.

Any future changes made to the study design and/or consent form require prior approval from the IRB before such changes can be implemented. Please use the attached report form to request for modifications, extension and completion of your study.

While there appears to be no more than minimum risk with your study, should an incidence occur that results in a research-related adverse reaction and/or physical injury, this must be reported immediately in writing to the IRB. Any project-related physical injury must also be reported immediately to the University physician, Dr. Reichert, by calling (269) 473-2222. Please feel free to contact our office if you have questions.

Best wishes in your research.

Sincerely

Mordekai Ongo
Research Integrity & Compliance Officer

Institutional Review Board - 4150 Administration Dr Room 322 - Berrien Springs, MI 49104-0355
Tel: (269) 471-6361 Fax: (269) 471-6543 E-mail: irb@andrews.edu

APPENDIX B

RECRUITMENT SCRIPT

Dear Andrews University Students:

Hi, my name is Michael Milmine and I am a Master's student here at Andrews University. I am working on my thesis research project and am looking for volunteers to take a survey on their television viewing, dating, and academic habits. To be able to sufficiently answer the survey questions, you would need to be in a dating relationship. This survey is anonymous and should take no more than 10 minutes. Most people finish it in less. I would really appreciate your time in helping to broaden the understanding of these topics and me personally with my thesis project.

Participants can enter into a drawing for a chance to win a $20 gift card to Family Dollar.

If you would be willing to participate, please use the following link: http://kwiksurveys.com/s.asp?sid=k1y7maaahryapow472083.

Thank you for your time!

APPENDIX C

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Milmine Social Interaction, Academics, and Media Instrument

Attention: You are eligible to take this survey if you are 18-29 years old, and in a dating relationship. Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. This is not a test. There are no right and wrong answers. Please do not put your name anywhere on this form. It is important that you answer each question as honestly as possible. All the information you provide will be kept confidential.

Section 1

For the following items please circle your answer.

1. Gender: Male Female

2. Ethnicity:

American Indian or Alaskan Native	Asian	Black or African American	Hispanic	Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	White	Mixed

Other: (Please specify)_____

3. Year of Study:

Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior Other

4. Do you consider your dating relationship to be a long-distance relationship?

Yes No

5. If you answered **yes** in the previous question, circle the statement that best describes your relationship.

- **a.** You live thirty or fewer minutes away from your boyfriend/girlfriend, but your access to a vehicle is limited or you are too busy to visit often.
- **b.** You live one to two hours away from your boyfriend/girlfriend.
- **c.** You live three to six hours away from your boyfriend/girlfriend.
- **d.** You live more than six hours away from your boyfriend/girlfriend.

For the following items please fill in the blanks as accurately as possible.

6. Please indicate your **age**:

_____

7. Please indicate your cumulative undergraduate GPA (to the best of your knowledge):

_____

Section 2

Please indicate how much you watch per day (your best estimate) by circling your answer for the following items:

8. **Television** (including television shows viewed online e.g. NetFlix, Amazon Prime, Hulu, etc.):

0mins 1-30mins 1-2 hrs 3-4 hrs 5-6 hrs 7+hrs

9. **Informational television** (e.g. news):

0mins 1-30mins 1-2 hrs 3-4 hrs 5-6 hrs 7+hrs

10. **Entertainment television** (including sports):

0mins 1-30mins 1-2 hrs 3-4 hrs 5-6 hrs 7+hrs

11. **Educational television** (e.g. History channel, Discovery channel, documentaries):

0mins 1-30mins 1-2 hrs 3-4 hrs 5-6 hrs 7+hrs

12. Approximately how many **movies** do you watch in **one week** (includes theaters, DVDs, and online)?

0 1-2 3-4 5-6 7-8 9+

Section 3

For the following questions please fill in the blanks as accurately as possible with approximately how many times per day you do the following with your boyfriend/girlfriend:

13. **Hug**, **hold hands** have any other physical contact **(excluding kissing and sexual behaviors)**?

_____

14. **Kiss**?

_____

15. Approximately how many times per week do you engage in activities with your boyfriend/girlfriend more intimate than kissing with your boyfriend/girlfriend?

_____

16. Approximately how much time do you spend with your boyfriend/girlfriend each week?

_____

Please circle your responses to the items below. Each item is rated on a 1 to 7 scale with 1 being not important and 7 being extremely important. How important is it that your boyfriend/girlfriend:

17. Has an attractive body/appearance?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. Makes physical contact with you daily?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. Spends time with you every day?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. Gives you gifts (purchased or handmade; eating at restaurants included) to show his/her love?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. Compliments you regularly?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. Goes out of their way to do nice things for you on a regular basis (excluding gifts)?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Please circle your responses to the item below. Each item is rated on a 1 to 7 scale with 1 being not at all satisfied and 7 being extremely satisfied.

23. How **satisfied** are you with your current dating relationship?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

For the following item please fill in the blank as accurately as possible.

24. Indicate the length of your current relationship (i.e. years & months): _____

Section 4

For the following item please write the major that best describes your own. If you are a double major, write both of your majors.

25. Please indicate your major(s): _____

For the following questions please circle the response that best describes your experience. How many times have you:

26. Changed your major in college/university?

Never Once Twice Three times Four times Five times More than five times

27. Skipped class without a doctor's note in the past month?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6+

For the following questions please circle your answer using a scale of 0 to 6 with 0 being never and 6 being all the time. How often do you:

28. Procrastinate or put off studying and doing homework?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

29. Engage in academically dishonest behavior (e.g. sharing assignments, plagiarism, cheating on tests)?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6

Please circle the answer that best describes how many hours you spend each day on average:

30. Doing homework?

0 1-2 3-4 5-6 7-8 9+

31. Studying?

0	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9+

Thank you! If you wish, you may enter a drawing for a $20 giftcard for Family Dollar (in the Apple Valley Plaza) by using the following link: https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/TGZYZD5

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Education

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MA Educational Psychology with Research Emphasis (August 2015), Summa Cum Laude

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Research & Presentations

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- Co-authored an original research study with Dr. WilliamsMorris and entitled Teaching Neuroscience Core Concepts in an Introductory Psychology Course: Does it Make a Difference? (2012) which Dr. WilliamsMorris presented at SFN and SEPA
- Authored an original research study entitled Beware of What You Watch: Television Viewing and Dating Behavior (2011-2012)
    - Presented at: Southern Adventist University Campus Research Day (2012), Southern Adventist University Fundraiser (The Grand Event 2013), & SEPA Convention 2013
    - Published in the Journal of Undergraduate Interdisciplinary Research, Spring 2013

Scholarships, Awards, & Honors

- Merkell Kraatz Scholarship (2015)
- Wilfred and Rowena Futcher Scholarship (2014)
- Restricted Education Graduate Scholarship (2013)
- Southern Adventist University, Distinguished Deans List (2009-2013)
- Star Scholarship recipient 2009-2013
- Selected for Who's Who Among Students in American Universities and Colleges 2013
- Dean's Award for Psychology, 2013
- Scored at the 88th percentile on the Major Field Test in Psychology, Spring 2013
- Coombs Motivational Award 2012
- Department of Education & Psychology Academic Performance Scholarship, Fall 2012

Positions Held

- 2013-present, Graduate Assistant
  Andrews University, Graduate Department of Psychology and Counseling
- 2012-2013, Lab Assistant/Tutor/Reader for Research Design and Statistics I & II
  Southern Adventist University, School of Education and Psychology